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## THE COTTON CRISIS IN LANCASHIRE.

THE distress prevalent in the districts which are the seat of the chief manufacture of this kingdom, is, we are glad to see, at length attracting the attention of the leading journals. It is high time it should. Hitherto it has been so quietly borne that the public have been inclined to underestimate it, and almost to lose sight of it. We have, on more than one occasion, briefly explained the mode and extent in which the American war was affecting the cotton trade of England, and we need now do little but recall what we have said, and give a brief statement of the position and prospect of the operatives at the present moment.

We are usually dependent for nearly three quarters of our supply of raw cotton upon the United States. The *cotton year* is reckoned from September to September, that being the month in which the new crop begins to be gathered, and before the end of which the old crop is all cleared off and shipped. Of the crops of 1859, 1860, and 1861, we received on an average, before the month of June, upwards of 2,000,000 bales. Of the crop of 1862 we shall have received before June only a few thousand bales—scarcely more, in fact, than we have reshipped to Boston and New York. To meet this enormous deficiency, we have had to rely almost exclusively on the cotton which our high prices were able to attract from India, and India accordingly sent us last year about half a million of bales more than usual. This helped us a good deal, but still left a great deficiency in quantity, and a considerable one in quality likewise; for the Indian fibre is very inferior to the American in length, in cleanliness, and in general availability. Nevertheless, our manufacturers met the difficulty as they best could; they increased their consumption of Indian, and reduced their consumption of American cotton; and they diminished their production altogether by working only three or four days a week for some months together. Still the supply remained utterly inadequate to our wants, and has been decreasing at an alarming rate. We have a much smaller stock than usual on hand, and a much smaller quantity on its way to this country. The following table is as correct as any one can be into which a conjectural element must enter, and gives a faithful picture of the prospects before us:—

### ESTIMATE OF SUPPLY TO 30TH JUNE.

	April 4, 1862.	April 4, 1861.
	Bales.	Bales.
Stock in Liverpool, American .....	140,330	790,600
Imports, estimate to end of June .....	10,000	648,500
	150,330	1,439,100
Stock, East-India .....	227,900	95,000
Imports, estimate .....	184,000	259,600
	562,230	1,793,700
Stock, all other kinds .....	82,000	56,700
Imports, estimate .....	60,000	59,000
Total in Liverpool .....	700,000	1,909,400
Stock in London and Glasgow .....	64,000	72,600
Stock on Continent of Europe .....	94,000	332,000
Total for Europe .....	858,000	2,314,000

From this it appears that our total resources are little more than one-third of those of last year; and that of American cotton we have to count upon only 150,000 bales, against *ten times* that quantity in ordinary years. Our consumption has already fallen to about *five-eighths* that of last year—the weekly figures being, since January 1st,

26,700 bales against 40,700, with a certainty of a still further immediate reduction.

Now, let us realize to ourselves what this means. It means simply half work—that is, *half wages*—for all those engaged in the manufacture of cotton, and in all the subsidiary trades and occupations; for the people employed in bleaching, printing, and finishing calicoes; for the shopmen employed in selling them; for the railways and canals engaged in transporting them on land; for the ships and ship-labourers engaged in conveying them by sea. It means, in fact, a reduction of one-half—and that for months together, probably for a whole year at least—in the earnings and the means of living, in the income and expenditure, of the chief portion of the population in three of our most populous counties,—that is, in Lancashire, in Cheshire, and in Lanarkshire. It means a reduction to actual poverty of the best-paid section of our working-classes; beggary to many, mendicancy to many, positive starvation to not a few. It means that thousands who had money laid up in Friendly Societies or Savings Banks, have been obliged to exhaust the hoardings of many careful and industrious years; that thousands who had comfortable and well-ordered homes have been compelled to pawn their furniture and to sell their clothes; that thousands who have always hitherto been independent and steady artisans are now reduced to beg from house to house, to break stones upon the road, or to starve in the solitude of their dismantled garrets. It means, too, that numbers who used to pay parochial rates are now subsisting, and subsisting miserably, upon parochial funds. It means, finally, that temptation to sin hangs over hundreds of decent women, and temptation to steal over hundreds of honest men. Day by day the pressure augments. Day by day the resources for meeting it diminish. "Relief Committees" do something; "soup kitchens" do something; parish officers do something. But what are all combined against privations so general and so deep? Some Poor-Law Guardians, we are told, allow two shillings a week to those entirely out of work. But these people, when at work, earned above twelve shillings a week. Take the town of Blackburn as a specimen; and we believe it is by no means the saddest or the worst. The eighty-four mills there employ usually 20,352 persons. Of these, 7,000 are now quite unemployed, and others are only partially employed. The amount distributed among the whole number in weekly wages is £6,000 less than usual. But only £330 more than usual is expended in poor rates. Nearly 9,000 persons were relieved, but they only received about one shilling each. More than £2,500 have been subscribed by the richer and more benevolent residents in the neighbourhood, and nine or ten thousand operatives are assisted by this means. But still the distress continues, and is unavoidably increasing.

We really think it is time that the Government and the general public should come to the aid of local suffering, cautiously no doubt, but still generously and promptly. For, it must be remembered, the sufferers now are sufferers by no fault of their own. They are habitually the most steadily and energetically industrious classes of our whole nation. The calamity has come upon them solely in consequence of political disturbances in a distant country, which they did nothing to bring about and could do nothing to avert. The distress is approaching in severity to that of the Irish famine; but, unlike the case of the Irish famine, the sufferers here are in no sense and in no degree to blame. They have not, it is true, laid by so largely as they ought to have done out of their usually ample earnings; but





they have laid by, and the proof is that they have now been for nine months in only partial employment, and have only now begun to appeal to their countrymen for aid. The blow is one which may be said to have been struck at the whole nation, but the cotton operatives alone so far have had to bear the brunt. We do not pretend to dictate, or even to suggest, what Government should do; but we are sure that the Poor-Law Board should, without delay, investigate and consider the whole question, and save from utter misery and degradation those patient, intelligent, and energetic artisans, who ask for nothing but employment, and who at all times have infinitely preferred the bread of toil to that of charity, and many of whom now would actually rather starve than sink into the class of parish paupers.

#### A BELGRAVIAN HOAX.

THE *Union*, which appears to be a newspaper addicted to a kind of sacred gloom, has discovered that the greatest obstacles to religious improvement in England are the wives of clergymen. This extremely ungallant idea it follows up with a *rechauffé* of all the arguments in favour of clerical celibacy that could possibly occur to the mind of the most emaciated acolyte. In order that the question may be properly considered it has been thought desirable that some expression of opinion should be elicited from a class which has certainly a right to be heard on the point, namely, the wives of clergymen themselves. So much is due to science, which demands, even in theological inquiries, that data should be collected from all possible quarters. Last week, by a fortunate concurrence of circumstances, the *Union* "had it in its power" to supply a missing link in the chain of testimony. A fair correspondent, who dates her letter "Passion-tide," and signs it the "Wife of an Anglican Priest," which last we suppose is Belgravian for an English clergyman, has very nobly come forward to prevent "young curates" and "seriously disposed young ladies" from marrying one another. For this purpose she details her own experiences. She was a pious and useful young lady before she united herself to the curate, and took great interest in parish work.

"Once like the rest I fasted, taught, and prayed;  
Love's victim now, but then a sainted maid."

On the other hand, the curate was an exemplary model of all the Christian virtues before he won her hand. His subsequent declension she acknowledges with that Christian candour which ladies sometimes display when they are confessing their husbands' sins. The husband himself, who cannot afford, perhaps, to be proud in the face of such overwhelming domestic evidence, admits all that she can say against him with humility. He comes in at the end of the letter, and joins her in advising young curates and young ladies "to pray for Divine strength to choose the estate of holy celibacy." Both husband and wife are clear that English ladies had better not marry, and the wife is unflatteringly positive that if they do they had better marry laymen.

The *Union's* fair correspondent seems to have made up her mind that marriage irreparably injures curates. A curate goes off, if we may use the expression, in spiritual power after he has once given himself away. Before that catastrophe they are often extremely forcible, and preach with much fervour and success—chiefly, it is true, in the afternoons. Perhaps it might be considered rather hard upon her husband, to whom she professes herself "warmly attached," that she should come forward in this solemn spirit to give notice of his spiritual decay. She explains accordingly, and, so far as we can see, satisfactorily, that she is acting from the purest motives. It is to benefit the world that she draws the curtain from her private history. "The remarkable letter" of a previous writer in the *Union*—"a clerk in holy orders"—on the subject of celibacy, has "so taken hold of" her mind, that she "feels bound, for the Church's sake," to ask the editor to insert in his valuable paper what she has to reveal. Of course the interests of the Church are paramount, and little more is to be said. But we strongly recommend "an Anglican priest"—if he exists elsewhere than on paper—to keep a sharp look out upon the "clerk in holy orders," whose letters are so influential, and whose spiritual power appears as yet to be so undiminished. If curates do "go off" after matrimony in respect of curate-power, of course it cannot be helped; but it must be extremely trying to a well-meaning married "clerk" to witness the perennial strength and vigour of those members of the bright band of celibates who still are left.

The history of the repentant Eloisa who has ruined her Abelard by marrying him, may perhaps serve as a terrible warning to "clergymen about to marry." At any rate, the "Wife of an Anglican Priest" will have discharged her melancholy duty, and the editor of the *Union*, in a leading article devoted to the subject, is of opinion that she has discharged it well. The beginning of her tale is as follows. When she was nearly twenty, at the close of her second London season, she "took a serious turn, owing to circumstances with which she will not trouble" the public. We hope, for the sake of ecclesiastical discipline, that they had nothing to do with any other young curate. She returned home to the country, and betook herself to school teaching and parochial visiting.

"In fulfilling these duties, which I did very energetically, I often met the curate. We sympathised in our religious views, and were enabled in our respective positions, by mutual understanding, to bring such an amount of influence to bear on the high-and-dry rector, and my father, the squire, that the parish church was restored, saints' days and Lent services were established, and the rural hamlets of the scattered parish were thoroughly looked after and visited."

Another London season came and went; during which she could not be got to go to balls at all, and on one afternoon much alarmed her parents by stealing off with her maid to church. Again she returned to the country, where she "resumed her parochial occupations, and all weathers went to church twice on Sundays," the curate preaching in the afternoon. A school-feast was the occasion which led to the matrimonial mishap. He and she found themselves walking alone towards sunset. The precise words which he uttered and what she replied, she "declines" to state. "Suffice it to say, we then and there became engaged." At first her parents were unbending. After a few months they relented, fearing "that she would fall into a decline, or go over to Rome,"—a terrible and ladylike, but we hope and believe, an unusual alternative. She became the wife of the Rev. C. M., and was happily snatched both from Catholicism and consumption.

We draw a veil over that portion of her letter which relates to the Rev. C. M.'s spiritual decay. There is, after all, a wild chance that the Rev. C. M. is not a mere imaginary griffin, of the Mrs. Harris order. He may be alive and in a permanent state of religious debility consequent on matrimony. It is hardly fair that we should give Mrs. C. M.'s picture of his sad condition, unnecessary circulation. Her letter concludes thus:—

"My husband joins with me in offering the counsel to young curates and seriously disposed young ladies. To the former we say, pray for divine strength to choose the estate of holy celibacy and abstain from marriage; the latter, if they have no vocation to embrace a 'sister's' life, we implore to marry laymen, whom very likely they may be able to raise to a higher standard, and not priests, whose lives they run the risk and responsibility of lowering."

"Believe me, truly yours,

"THE WIFE OF AN ANGLICAN PRIEST."

"Passiontide, 1862."

A letter so candid and so decorous is calculated to produce no slight sensation among the readers of the *Union* and the Tractarian sex, if we may use the expression, in general. A leading article is dedicated in the *Union* to the discussion of it. The general opinion seems to be that a heavy blow has been dealt to the cause of clerical marriages. Celibacy is felt to be looking up. Matrimony is in disgrace. "Despite the grace, the attractiveness, and under certain circumstances the healthy tone of married life, it is not the ideal of the New Testament, but of the Old." The early Church is against it. The *Union's* private experiences are quite with the early Church, and indeed entirely corroborate the remarks of the fair letter-writer. If there are men silly enough to write the leading article, there are women perhaps ridiculous enough to write the letter. But we are inclined to believe that the *Union* has fallen into a trap laid by the veteran jokers, who have twice played upon the bibulous simplicity of the "Tiser." The hoax is a better one than the famous Nebuchadnezzar mystery, because it is at the expense not of the editor's Greek, but of his common sense. Perhaps, however, the *Union* has some excuse. It moves in an atmosphere in which ladies have very odd spiritual duties, and regard life as wasted when family cares and ties interfere to prevent them from following in the luminous wake of young curates. At all events the *Union* believes the thing possible, which is not saying much for the fair devotees, to whom it has had access.

No better answer could be afforded to the wretched theories of some semi-Catholic Protestants than the publication of this letter, whether genuine or forged. We warn the advocates of this wicked trash, that the people of this country will never tolerate an effeminate and celibate priesthood. English sense and feeling alike revolt from the idea. It is opposed to the very spirit of Protestantism. One thing is worse than imprudent marriages, worse than a poor and married clergy;—and that is, Platonic and sentimental flirtations between clergymen and women. England will not have them, and England is perfectly right. Meanwhile, we congratulate the *Union* on having fallen a victim to a gentle hoax; and we wonder whether it will ever again have it in its power to furnish us with revelations of the kind.

#### THE IONIAN PARLIAMENT.

THE Legislative Assembly of the Ionian Islands seems, to an English eye, something like a naughty child, placed in the corner for penitential purposes, and brought out of it from time to time in order to ascertain whether penitence is yet achieved. One such little victim of domestic discipline, on being asked whether he was "good," is said to have had the foresight to inquire what were the dietary arrangements of the nursery for that day; and on learning that nothing more delicate than rice-pudding was in store for him, to have unblushingly announced himself as "naughty," and to have returned to his corner in resolute sulkiness. The Lord High

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Commissioner has just been through a somewhat similar performance at Corfu. The Ionians have had plenty of leisure to recover their good-humour: again and again they have been sent back to their corner in disgrace by repeated prorogations. Once more Sir H. Storks inquires whether they are "good," and once more the assembly, finding that he has still nothing better than the mere rice-pudding of the Protectorate to offer it, declares itself as thoroughly ill-tempered and insolent as ever. There is a single spark of hope, however, and the Lord High Commissioner, with great good sense, determines to make the most of it. The assembly of the twelfth Parliament, through its spokesman, the Most Illustrious Doctor Elia Zervo Jacobato, "proposes to fulfil its regular duties," and Sir H. Storks expresses his intense gratification at the circumstance. Some of the illustrious Doctor's assertions, however, were too monstrously untrue to be allowed to pass uncontradicted. Nothing, according to him, but the indelible consciousness of a rightful cause, and the prospect of ample compensation in another state of being, could carry the groaning Hellenians through the sufferings which the tyranny of England imposes upon them. "Everything," he says, "which could contribute to the moral progress of the Ionians, to the development and encouragement of the resources of the country, has been neglected. Arbitrariness is become the rule by which the State is governed. The expression of opinion has been circumscribed, and even punished; personal liberty has been outraged, and deplorable oppression exercised. Mismanagement and waste of the public revenues have contributed to produce the present deplorable condition of the finances of the State." To this sort of vague Jeremiad good plain facts are the most satisfactory reply, and with these happily Sir H. Storks was amply furnished. The Ionian Islands, despite of the most demonstrative unhappiness, are proved by hard statistics to be completely prosperous. Population increases, trade flourishes, personal security is perfectly maintained, liberty of speech and action is allowed to a degree for which the Ionian malcontents would have to come to England to find a parallel. There are defects, it is true, but they are such as arise not from the bad arrangements of the Protectorate, but from the obstinate refusal of the municipal authorities to discharge their legal functions. In a spirit of loyal imitation they have suffered an admirable system of roads, made for them by their British oppressors, to lapse into decay, almost as complete as that of the neighbouring continent. The finances are deranged simply because the municipalities will not collect them; and the same may be said of all the disorders about which so much eloquent indignation is expended. The history of the municipalities was sketched some years ago by Sir George Bowen, and it is one which goes far to explain the prevailing inconveniences. They are fond of appealing to antiquity, and antiquity proves them to have been from the very first as foolish, as insolent, and as incapable, as they are at the present day. The feeble spark of independence which smouldered on under the Turkish rule was absolutely extinguished when the Islands came to form part of the Venetian Republic; at that time the inhabitants were sedulously excluded from any executive power whatever. "Provveditori," or governors, were sent from Venice, and the administration absolutely concentrated in their hands; a council of nominated aristocrats, whose names were registered in the "Libro d'oro," was the nearest approach to a representative assembly. "Nothing"—so ran the famous manual of Venetian statecraft—"is to be less depended on than the good faith of the Greeks; they should be treated like wild beasts, their teeth drawn, and their claws pared; they should be frequently subjected to humiliations, and deprived of all opportunity of becoming warlike; bread and the stick is what they require; humanity should be kept for more deserving occasions." Is this the *régime* to which the fond recollections of Ionian patriots recur? or does memory turn to the brief and troubled existence of the Septinsular Republic, as the realization of an ideal felicity? On the fall of Venice, the Ionians, for the first time, became their own masters; and it is curious to see how their much-talked-of autocracy was employed. "There exist abundant materials to prove," says Sir G. Bowen, "that in the course of the first two years of that *régime*, all the seven islands had been guilty of rebellion against their general governments, while each separate island had also frequently risen in arms against its own elective municipality. A deputation of principal Ionians was sent to implore the Emperor of Russia to rescue the country from these scenes of bloodshed and anarchy." Nothing could be more abject than the language in which their petition was couched; they promised to receive in blind submission whatever form of government might be granted to them by the adorable hand of the Czar; they begged that it might be supported by a strong force against the insubordination of the inhabitants. They added that the Ionians, "though they had attempted a republican constitution, were neither born free nor instructed in any arts of government, nor possessed of moderation so as to live peaceably under any political system framed by their own countrymen."

The Czar acceded to so reasonable a request, and after the peace of Tilsit handed over the islands to Napoleon, to be incorporated in the French empire. The treaty of Paris conferred upon England the dignified task of guarding this hopeful possession, and for thirty-two years we succeeded better than could have been expected. The municipal

officers and local magistrates were in the hands of the executive, and improvements of all sorts were carried on with enterprise and success. In 1849 Lord Seaton was ill-advised enough to surrender the election to popular suffrage and vote by ballot, and Sir H. Ward is proved to have been perfectly right in declaring, as he did on coming into office, that the system established by his predecessor "was not to be worked by any human power." The municipal officers have the management of the whole internal machinery of the state; their salaries are objects of keen competition; and as they go out every two years and a half, their principal efforts are directed to securing their re-election at the end of that period. "Popularity, that is, the gaining of votes, is almost totally incompatible with an efficient discharge of public duty." Public debts are not exacted, municipal laws are infringed with impunity, and, worst of all, appeals are made to the passions of a naturally peaceable populace by violent denunciations of the English Government, and by systematic misrepresentation of every measure of improvement upon which that Government may determine. With such a system in force, we must be prepared for such innocent demonstrations as that to which the Lord High Commissioner has just given his reply, and be glad that matters are not worse. In administering a vast empire, and carrying through the complicated measures which it entails, the English Government is perfectly accustomed to a succession of petty annoyances, and no annoyance can well be more insignificant than the unreasonable invectives of a few hot-headed intriguers or enthusiasts, who believe that they are serving their country by refusing to let its political machinery work, by throwing public service into hopeless confusion, and by shouting out the stale cry for union with Greece, when Greece itself is not, there is reason to believe, in the least anxious that any such union should take place, and is at any rate in far too troubled a condition to attend to any body's grievances but its own. The feeble hand of King Otho is quite incompetent to amalgamate into anything like permanent union the shattered fragments of a race, which has been for many centuries, at any rate, in complete separation. "We are Greeks," said the people of Corfu to Mr. Gladstone, "and we should be glad if we could be united with Greece, but we know it is impossible." That impossibility, for the present at any rate, the Ionian Legislature will, we must hope, be brought to recognize. The great European settlement of 1815, framed to meet a special emergency, disregarded of necessity the tastes and sentiments of many of the races, with whose destiny it had to deal. The Ionians may feel aggrieved at an English Protectorate, but the tranquillity of Europe is of more importance than a romantic sentiment. Englishmen have nothing for which to reproach themselves as to the manner in which their trust has been discharged. No amount of ill-feeling or insolent language has ever tempted us into cruelty or oppression. The very outspokenness of Ionian discontent is the best proof of the absence of any improper coercion. The malcontents have, at any rate, the privilege of calling all Europe to attest their sufferings. The language of the Lord High Commissioner sums up the whole discussion with conclusive emphasis, which must, we think, have impressed his hearers with the hopelessness of their agitation. "In accepting the Protectorate of the Ionian Islands, England has undertaken duties and acquired rights. It only remains for me to intimate to you, that while she will discharge the first with scrupulous fidelity, she will maintain the last inviolate."

#### ULTRAMONTANE CONSERVATISM.

THE Tories are again coquetting with the Irish Roman Catholics. Two English elections, at least, in the last four months have been turned in their favour by the priests; and a glance at one or two recent division lists in the House will show that the alliance has been carried out inside as well as outside Parliament. We trust that the country will have an eye upon this unnatural flirtation. It is not that the Protestant principles of Mr. Newdegate have been undermined, or that Mr. Spooner, at the close of an honourable controversial career, has been persuaded not to eat meat on Fridays. It is a pleasure to be able to believe that the bulk of the Opposition are protected by the innocence of their natures from all tendency to theological error. The fault lies with the Conservative generals, who undoubtedly are playing their cards so as to acquire favour with the Catholics of England and of Ireland. The change is a little sudden, considering the religious programme so recently issued by Mr. Disraeli, in which he summoned the clergy of the Church of England to rally round his flag. At present he appears to be equally solicitous for the patronage of the Parti Prêtre. His efforts in this direction seem to have succeeded. Major O'Reilly, of the Pope's Brigade, is not merely ordered by his bishop to give his vote to the Opposition, but is forbidden to place his illustrious person on the benches below the Ministerial gangway. The significant warning thus given by his spiritual director at home to Ireland's most valiant son, is a straw that shows the way a strong wind blows. What is the nature of the bargain that has been made by the Conservatives in order thus to secure the Ultramontanists in England and in Ireland? We know what the Pope's Brigade give—what do they



get? Dr. MacHale and his ecclesiastical sons are not in the habit of exchanging political confidence for nothing.

Probably few people will have any difficulty in making up their minds as to what is the bait with which the Conservative leaders are angling. They are willing to hold out hopes to the Catholics that Lord Malmesbury's foreign policy, if he came into office, would be favourable to the Pope. The prominent members of Lord Derby's Cabinet, with two conspicuous exceptions, have always assumed towards Sardinia a cold and forbidding air. Italy has grown into a kingdom, and the Tories have saluted its growth with pompous and ineffectual disapprobation. They have seen much to regret in the conduct of Napoleon III., in the conduct of Cavour, of Garibaldi, of Cialdini, of Rattazzi; in fact, of every single personage who has been fighting the battle of Italian independence. They shake their heads over the torn treaties of 1815. They pretend to believe rumours of Liberal misconduct, which have been disproved over and over again. Italy, they say, is no longer the Italy of Dante and of Tasso, and the habits of Victor Emmanuel are profligate in the extreme. In fact, not having the courage to oppose the aspirations of the whole Italian people, Mr. Disraeli and a certain political clique who take their tone from him have simply stood by and sneered. Not one word of generous sympathy for the cause of freedom issues from their lips. Not a single expression falls from them in approbation of the gallant efforts of a race who, by their own strength, are winning power and liberty against the unanimous will of all the despotisms in Europe. There are happily few Englishmen who have not felt a glow of enthusiasm and good will towards Italy. The Tory leaders, however, are exceptions to the rule. "They deeply regret; they cannot but lament; they are bound to say; they are compelled to fear; and, besides, there are the treaties of Vienna."

Whether or no Venice is necessary to Germany is, in our opinion, neither a material nor a doubtful point; still it is one which is capable of discussion. On the subject, however, of the Pope's temporal power, we should have thought that politicians of all shades of feeling in this country might have been pretty much agreed. Yet by their brazen silence Mr. Disraeli and his friends have done the best they can to support an ecclesiastical tyranny which is the worst and most cruel in Europe. They cannot resist the opportunity of fishing for a few miserable Ultramontane votes. By consistently absenting themselves from the discussions, and by lending no support to the unexceptionable foreign policy of Ministers on this subject, they are making themselves parties to the attacks made upon it by the Maguires and Bowyers of the House. They dare not publicly support the Papal cause, but by their tone and demeanour they hound on those who do. When the Papal question appears, the Opposition leaders disappear. Mr. Whiteside produces none of that Protestant bottled thunder with which he once used to regale his constituents. Sir Hugh Cairns has no message to deliver from Protestant Belfast. Sir John Pakington retires into private life; and Mr. Disraeli, though challenged to come forth, declines to emerge from the undignified shelter of the smoking-room of the House of Commons. It is to be hoped that the Tory leader, whose happy genius leads him so often to indulge in, and to mismanage intrigues, will profit less than he expects from his alliance with the Mammon of unrighteousness. Possibly, as he gains at one end of the division-list, he loses at the other. The country gentlemen who do him the honour to follow him in the House may not be so ready to barter the cause of religious and political belief for the votes of a few priest-ridden Irish members. He has already had an experience or two on this matter, which he would do well to recollect. He cannot blow hot and cold with impunity: and there are many Conservatives who would sooner cut off their right hands than gain a majority by manœuvres so illiberal and so unworthy. Already, in the north of Ireland, the Protestants are beginning to look coldly on a set of statesmen who are always treating with the theological enemy. Mr. Disraeli must take his choice between Cork and Derry;—he cannot have both. Sir Robert Peel, who is an Orangeman in manners and in dislike to the Pope, is cutting away a good deal of Irish ground from beneath his feet. At home, it remains to be seen what will be thought of the programme of a party who virtually favour the power of Austria at Venice, and of Antonelli at Rome.

Mr. Disraeli will probably finish his career as he began it, without having once risen above the atmosphere of the Tapers and the Tadpoles. An electioneering agent to the Carlton would probably know better than to be caught in a political flirtation with the Ultramontane Bishops of Ireland. He would recollect that a vote or two in a division are dearly purchased at the expense of the indignation of a Protestant country, and would understand that if a combination of Tories and Catholics turned out Lord Palmerston, Lord Palmerston would go to an election with a very tolerable cry. Mr. Disraeli, with what we believe to be a short-sighted ingenuity, concentrates his whole efforts upon the division lists. This antiquated and flimsy statesmanship contrasts but ill by the side of the iron genius and bold policy of really great men. It is a monstrous thing that a politician of his position in England should connive at the anti-Italian speeches of the Ultramontanists in the House, for the sake of winning

a stray Catholic to the ranks of the Opposition. It is monstrous, but it is indisputably true. With such unmanly and retrograde hesitation, Englishmen may compare the attitude adopted by Mr. Gladstone. The Chancellor of the Exchequer was a Conservative once, and in some respects is so still, and is, or has the dangerous reputation of being, a Churchman of extreme views. Mr. Gladstone, the Conservative and High Churchman from his earliest youth, has been the friend of civil and religious liberty. Can anybody in his senses conceive of him as sitting silent, or tripping, stammering, and faltering, when Italy and Rome are mentioned, lest he should offend the nominees of a few Irish Bishops? What other statesman in Parliament, except the Conservative leader, would play so ambiguous a part? We believe that there is none, and we believe that there are many of Mr. Disraeli's own party who will take care that he does not advantage himself by it.

#### THE NEW JOINT-STOCK BANKS.

IN the early part of this year, foreign loans appeared to have entire possession of the English money market, but latterly some new competitors have entered the field. The projectors of public companies are now occupying the ground vacated by the ministers of foreign powers. Every week adds to the number of joint-stock enterprises, whose promoters are eagerly contending for the notice of capitalists. Their increase has been so rapid as to raise, in many minds, a feeling of alarm, and to give rise to many notes of warning as to the possible danger that may ensue from the want of due caution on the part of the public. The success of one undertaking gives rise to imitations, in which possibly many of the elements are wanting which secured the success of the former. People who have shared or seen their neighbours share in a successful speculation, are very likely to go hastily and without sufficient information into any scheme which holds out vague but brilliant hopes of profit. Amongst the companies which have been lately projected, joint-stock banks occupy the most prominent place. It is not intended to express any opinion as to the specific prospects of any of these companies, but rather to examine generally how far the principle of limited liability, under which these companies have been formed, is likely to succeed as applied to banking.

In the first place, it must be observed that we have yet very little experience to guide us. The principle of limited liability which was introduced in 1855 was not extended to banking companies till 1858, and it is remarkable how little advantage has hitherto been taken of the permission thus tardily given, though the principle has been most extensively adopted in the formation of almost every other sort of company. It appears from a Parliamentary return lately printed, that between 1855 and the beginning of the present year, more than two thousand companies were formed with limited liability; while between 1858 and the same period the number of banks formed under that system was only nine, and very few of these have yet actually commenced operations. As far, therefore, as experience goes, the matter rests exactly where it did when the act of 1858 was passed. Of these nine banks eight were formed in 1861; and hence it appears that for more than two years after the passing of the act only a single bank was formed with limited liability. This is important as showing that that principle has not given any artificial encouragement to the formation of banking companies, though when other causes give an impetus to such undertakings there is little doubt but that they will in future take that form. There is no difficulty, in the present case, in assigning the cause which has produced the increasing number of projected joint-stock banks. Banking has lately been a very profitable business. There has been, in the course of the last year, a very remarkable rise in the price of the shares of the principal joint-stock banks in London,—due, of course, to the increasing dividends which they have been able to pay. As a natural consequence, capital is ready to flow into that business; and it is quite clear that under these circumstances additional joint-stock banks would have been formed at the present time, even though the Legislature had not extended to them the privilege previously given to other companies.

In considering the question of the applicability of limited liability to banking, there are two sets of persons to be considered—the shareholders and the customers of the bank. The former take precedence, as they are engaged in the formation of the company; while the latter do not appear till it has actually commenced operations. Of course, in banking, as in other companies, the practical question for a person intending to invest his money in the shares of a new company, is the character and position of the managers and promoters. It is not in the power of the Government to prevent the institution of fraudulent companies; but something has been effected in this respect by the publicity gained by registration; and though many of the enactments on this subject are evaded, or only partially carried into effect, it is at all events in the power of an intending subscriber to find out who are the persons chiefly responsible for the management.

And it is in the former principle of liability. former principle of liability. face of it other companies banks on required to already practical v always urg unlimited give confid ritatively s banks cann this sort ma question is, true that the are on the chartered co of the share shown perfe joint-stock mentioned t drawn from

It is not in limited liability point of view whether the confidence wh ever, no good entitled to com under the uni holders is liab considered to b infinite. The limited liability folly to risk a l on a few share of which the sum of the sha of the creditors shareholder is l the shares whi fund in a parti Bank under th is £5,000,000, the shareholder system of limit say, since the shareholder, bes on, if necessary. It is inconceiv as vast as those could proceed so paid-up capital, assumed that th of course, could been already s companies, unde possess larger smaller the ar of a limited c on the part of equal, the conf vary with the makes limited It has often be with his own deposits at a l advances at a h the rates at wh requires credit, sufficient credit amount of its accordance with formed required no case exceedi interfered, appa been mentioned, certain date sh however, of the that a moderate liability are the exact condition liability.



And it is clear that there is not any greater likelihood of fraud in the formation of a company with limited than with unlimited liability. Indeed, it has been well said, that a company formed on the former principle, by admitting the possibility of failure, carries on the face of it something like a caution. These remarks apply as well to other companies as to banks; but there is a point peculiar to banks on which there is not yet that assurance of success which is required to give confidence to intending shareholders. It has been already remarked, that there is as yet no experience of the practical working of banks with limited liability. The objection always urged against admitting the principle in this case is, that unlimited liability on the part of the shareholders is necessary to give confidence to depositors. This point has not yet been authoritatively settled by experience. If the objection is sound, these banks cannot succeed. There can be little doubt that banks of this sort may be as stable as those under the old system; but the question is, will the public come at once to that conclusion? It is true that the Bank of England and the chartered banks of Scotland are on the principle of limited liability, and that in some of the chartered colonial banks the liability is limited to double the amount of the share, and, notwithstanding these restrictions, the public has shown perfect confidence in them; but the case of an ordinary joint-stock bank is sufficiently distinct from any of the banks just mentioned to moderate the force of the argument that might be drawn from these examples.

It is not intended to throw any doubt on the ultimate success of limited liability as applied to banking. Regarded simply from the point of view of an intending shareholder, there seems a doubt whether the public will at once give these new banks that amount of confidence which will ensure their immediate success. There is, however, no good reason why, if properly conducted, they should not be entitled to confidence on the part of depositors. If a bank formed under the unlimited system fail, the entire property of all the shareholders is liable to the demands of the creditors, and this is generally considered to be an inexhaustible sum. People confound unlimited with infinite. The fact is, that the majority of shareholders in banks of unlimited liability are not persons of large capital. It would clearly be folly to risk a large fortune for the sake of a small additional per-centage on a few shares. And there are at least two instances of recent date, of which the most recent is the Royal British Bank, where the total sum of the shareholders' property was insufficient to meet the demands of the creditors in full. In the case of a bank with limited liability, each shareholder is liable to the creditors only for the amount not paid up on the shares which he holds. To estimate the magnitude of this reserve fund in a particular instance, suppose the London and Westminster Bank under the principle of limited liability. The nominal capital is £5,000,000, of which £1,000,000 is paid up. In case of failure, the shareholders would be liable to the creditors, even under the system of limited liability, to the amount of £4,000,000, that is to say, since the shares are £100 each, of which £20 is paid up, each shareholder, besides losing the money actually paid, could be called on, if necessary, for a further sum of £80 for every share held by him. It is inconceivable that even assuming the operations of a bank to be as vast as those of the London and Westminster, any such institution could proceed so far before being wound up as to waste not merely its paid-up capital, but an additional sum of £4,000,000. It is here assumed that the shareholders would be able to pay this sum. Some, of course, could not pay their share, but it is evident from what has been already said, that the persons holding shares in banking companies, under the system of limited liability, would generally possess larger means than those under the unlimited system. The smaller the amount that has been paid up on the shares of a limited company, the greater is the reserve of liability on the part of the shareholders. Hence, all other things being equal, the confidence of the public in a limited company would vary with the amount of the share unpaid. It is this fact which makes limited liability peculiarly applicable to banking companies. It has often been pointed out that a banker carries on business, not with his own money, but with that of other people. He receives deposits at a low rate of interest, and discounts bills or makes advances at a high rate. His profits arise from the difference between the rates at which he borrows and the rates at which he lends. He requires credit, therefore, but not a large capital. If a bank has sufficient credit to be trusted with large deposits, the smaller the amount of its own capital, the larger will the dividends be. In accordance with this principle, the joint-stock banks which were first formed required payment of only a small part of their shares, in no case exceeding a fifth, but the Legislature afterwards unwisely interfered, apparently in forgetfulness of the principle which has just been mentioned, and required that banking companies formed after a certain date should have half their shares paid up. The success, however, of the great companies first established shows conclusively that a moderate amount of capital paid up and a large reserve of liability are the conditions of prosperous banking, and these are the exact conditions which are best suited to the principle of limited liability.

# THE UNIVERSITY BOAT-RACE.

If some uninstructed stranger had chanced to come across a knot of University men on the morning of Saturday last, and had been asked to guess the subject of their animated discourse, he would probably not have conjectured that it was the weather. It is true that the state of the weather becomes interesting on the eve of any grand display; that a hard frost, for example, is not favourable to the success of an Epsom spring meeting; and that the storm-god—whose high-priest is Admiral Fitzroy—delights maliciously to spoil those archery contests at which he has not been propitiated by the locking up of bows and arrows, and the ostentatious parade of umbrellas. Last Saturday, however, brought a still keener interest to the subject. No amount of rain would prevent the University boat-race, and the fiercest wind that ever blew from the north-east would, at most, only swamp the boat that was condemned to the Surrey side of the river. But a head-wind and troubled water are favourable to the heaviest crew; strength under such circumstances takes the place of science, and a deep stroke is more useful than a quick one. Now Oxford had sent up to the annual match a crew unusually heavy, and Cambridge had entered one unprecedentedly light. In the rowing portion of the crews alone there was a difference of seven stone weight,—which represents, generally speaking, seven stone of endurance under difficulties. No wonder, then, that men talked anxiously about the weather; and no wonder that when the morning brought a quiet breeze from the east, and water not ruffled beyond the average, the hopes of the light blue rose, and the chances of Cambridge were, in popular estimation, to those of Oxford as five sovereigns are to four. Those initiated in the mysteries of the science are pleased to affirm in the journals that the betting was even; but we have always been of the opinion that the betting of which sporting papers speak is an abstract and theoretic betting, of a quite different nature from concrete and practical bets; and, without wishing for a moment to profess a disrespectful familiarity with such mysteries, we can only remark that Cambridge seemed to us to be the favourites at Putney, and that the Cambridge crew on the morning of the race confidently expected to win.

The race went off as such things usually do, and was concluded as such things too often do not, namely, by the best boat winning, without the shadow of a suspicion in the mind of any one of the ten thousand spectators, of unfairness, jobbery, or caprice. The little racing-boats moving to their posts amid barges and steamers, one touch of which would be fatal, appear almost fairy-like in their lightness; it seems as if a troop of elephants were watching over the pair of mice—fifty feet by two—that move among them. University races are started by word of mouth; and on this occasion the light blue oars took the lead for a few rapid strokes from the start. Their rivals were almost immediately up with them, and soon drew ahead. In about fifty strokes they had almost cleared their length. At this period the Cambridge crew were struck with a singular desire to exhibit to the spectators a totally new and picturesque style of rowing. Those in the leading boat who may have ventured for a moment to look up from their work must have been startled by the appearance of something immediately behind them closely resembling a miniature animated windmill. The principle of this style is, that while some of the oars are at work in the water, some at all events may be in the air, and while the majority are on the feather, some two or three, in order to lose no time, may be steadily pursuing their stroke. It is a style which, upon this occasion, lost the Cambridge men a good deal of ground; and whether from an instinct that this was the case, or from awe of the coxswain, they presently returned to their more habitual harmony of stroke. But the race was practically over. Oxford never lost their lead, and except for a few moments shortly before Hammersmith Bridge, steadily increased it to the end. They won by rather less than half a minute, in a course of four miles; and they unquestionably deserved to win. They were better than their opponents in strength, and quite as good in style; and their rowing towards the end of the course, if not as quick as might be desired, was nevertheless extremely correct and steady. "Four" and "five" were nearly perfect; and the only fault that experienced eyes could detect in the remainder of the crew was a slight tendency to do their work rather at the end than in the middle of the stroke.

We wish them joy of their success; and we hope that Cambridge, in their turn, may win next year, to console them for their defeat. May the Putney race be never less thronged with eager faces, and the records of its victories be never less anxiously perused than now! The struggle is a generous and a manly one; rowing is a healthy exercise, and the patriotism which enlists so many sympathies in the cause of a champion crew does as much good to those who share it as all other feelings must do which are, in the main, unselfish. The Olympian games were among the chief bonds of native union in Greece; and the spirit which causes all to rejoice or suffer in the triumph or defeat of a few is the same spirit which, in another form, unites men in families and associates them in commonwealths. Make eight men represent the honour and strength of a thousand, and you give them a better impulse to hard work than if they contended each for his own glory; give a thousand an interest in the success of eight, and you lift them more nearly to the level of the perfect being, who cares less for himself than for his kind. It should not be forgotten, again, in enumerating its advantages, how much good the annual boat-race does by providing a subject of conversation for the few weeks immediately preceding the eventful day. Scholarships and class-lists are the food of the intellectual; few; the character and conduct of the proctors is a topic which cannot but be exhausted at last; and the academical course of the Prince of Wales is



now unhappily at an end at both universities. But the wise and foolish alike can discuss with a common anxiety the amount of nourishment which "bow" takes at dinner, or the hour at which "stroke" retires to rest. Whether or not the latest choice "picks it up at the beginning," or "brings it well through at the end"—how another runs away with the stroke, or clips it, or hangs, or screws, or commits any other of the crimes to which human nature, in its rowing capacity, is liable—all this is far more harmless and profitable talk than personal gossip, or questionable pleasantry, or idle trifling. For all these reasons, and because rowing is a delightful sport in itself, the great boat-race is a good and laudable custom. But it has really become necessary to protest against a view which seems widely spreading, that those who row in it are performing, for the sake of public duty, a kind of self-sacrifice, which entitles them at once to the reverent respect of their fellow-creatures; which, indeed, considered as a virtue, is only second to that of running a thousand miles in a thousand hours. It becomes necessary to assert, in the very plainest language, that those who belong to the University boat belong to it simply because it is pleasant and glorious to do so, and because they are allowed to wear a distinctive badge for ever on their hats. We have heard, till we are tired of hearing, how the best-born young men of the land voluntarily submit to the drudgery with a noble self-restraint. One would almost be inclined to suppose, from such language, that athletic exercise was a species of pleasure to which aristocratic birth absolutely found it difficult to condescend. And yet we have never been accustomed to believe, either that play is necessarily plebeian, or that the fact of a person's joining in the most popular of amusements implies anything more than that the amusement is one which he relishes. Do those who speak of the drudgery suppose that it is not a pleasant one, and a position in that boat more envied than a fellowship or a title? or do they imagine that if it were disagreeable to belong to a first-rate crew, men would be found to enter it? With every admiration for the sport, it is as well to call it by its right name. A victorious eight have quite enough satisfaction in the consciousness of having won the race, without being told besides, that they have gone through a great ordeal of virtue, and submitted to a splendid humiliation.

Mr. Denman, M.P., in a speech which he delivered on the evening of the race, went, perhaps, as far as any sensible man can go in singing the praises of the Athletes. Perhaps, indeed, he went a little farther. It appears that a certain hospitable rowing club entertained the rival crews at dinner at Willis's Rooms on the night of the race, and invited the most popular hero of the oar to take the chair. Mr. Denman is a Queen's Counsel, a member of Parliament, and he was once captain of the First Trinity Club. No more fit and proper person could be found to represent the boating interest in Parliament, or Parliamentary wisdom at a banquet of boating men. But we are all very fallible, and nowhere more so than at Willis's Rooms. It is but right to make some allowance for a speaker who has to address a hundred admirers of the art of rowing on the evening of the great race of the year; and no one, it need hardly be observed, is asked to dinner for nothing. But the chairman might have been content with saying that both crews were as good as they could possibly be, and that the winners fully deserved to win, while the losers as fully deserved not to lose. That portion, indeed, of his address in which he declares that the Cambridge crew had lost the start, and the lead, and the race, and everything except only their honour, is almost as touching as if it conveyed an intelligible idea to the mind. What, however, can he mean by his reflections on the "moral of that day's contest?" Sixteen men, he declares, belonging to the picked class, of the best born and richest families of the kingdom, had devoted themselves for months to the sole object of preparing for this day. Why, of course they had, if they wanted to be allowed to row. We have done our best to understand Mr. Denman, but we are utterly unable to perceive the force of the contrast between riches and muscular exertion; and we cannot even conjecture where the antecedent improbability lies which should prevent those young men from training for a race who alone can afford the time and money which must be spent upon it. Mr. Denman's antithesis is as strangely beside the mark as that of the French lady who, in an epitaph on her husband, who had fallen from a scaffolding and broken his neck, remarked, with the vigorous emphasis of her nation, that those only who knew the height from which the deceased had fallen could appreciate the depth of his widow's grief. When he goes on to describe how the Oxford "stroke," in consequence of an injury received in the last few days, rowed in the race with one hand only, we begin to feel that he is trespassing on the marvellous. To row a single stroke with one hand in the thirty-sixth part of a minute is hard enough; to put any real force into it is simply impossible; and, in fact, to those who noticed the Oxford boat there was every outward appearance of the usual number of hands at work on each of the oars. Mr. Denman had no need to have gone beyond the beaten path of simple panegyric. The audience would have been quite satisfied if he had merely declared, without venturing on any higher flight, that that day was the proudest of his life, those crews the best he ever saw, and the victory at Putney the highest distinction which this world is able to afford. To ourselves it seems, when looking at the matter calmly, that the only merit which a victorious crew really possesses is that it rowed very hard. When this implies that each man was loyal in his training and careful in his practice,—that he did his work well throughout, and did not save himself for the last reach,—that he did not flinch even when he felt that mortal terror which every race brings with it, the terror lest his strength should not last out,—that he was steady and rowed his best even when the terrible conviction

burst upon him that the stroke was about to quicken,—that he heard the roar of Hammersmith-bridge above him without showing off or looking up,—that even near the end, when the race was virtually decided, he bore up against cruel faintness and pain till the last stroke,—when to have rowed hard involves all this, it does imply some considerable merit after all.

#### MR. COBDEN ON MARITIME LAW.

It is to be regretted that Mr. Cobden was prevented, by illness, from taking part in the debate on Mr. Horsfall's motion for excepting the private property of belligerents from capture at sea. His speech upon the subject would no doubt have materially contributed to elucidate the question. Having lost that opportunity, Mr. Cobden has now addressed a letter to Mr. Henry Ashworth, the chairman of the Manchester Chamber of Commerce, in which he discusses at large some of the doctrines of International Law and especially that of blockade, which he thinks requires modification. It is by no means probable that changes so important and so opposed to the past policy of this country will command any general assent; but it is due to the character of Mr. Cobden and to the great principles at issue that the subject should be deliberately discussed.

Now, it is an admitted principle, that when two nations are at war, all other nations, as neutrals, may carry on commerce with the belligerents and with the rest of the world just as in time of peace. This general right of commerce has its exceptions, one of which is that a neutral may not trade with a blockaded port. This principle dates back to the time of *Grotius*, and his commentator, *Bynkershoek*, rests the prohibition to trade with a blockaded port or place upon the ground that "those who are within may be compelled to surrender, not merely by the direct application of force but also by the want of provisions and other necessities." Thus, it appears that the doctrine of blockade is justified upon the ground that it practically shortens a war, and neutrals are induced to respect the doctrine because, by violating it and carrying any sort of aid to the besieged, they would not only violate the duty of impartiality but would inevitably prolong the contest. It is, indeed, impossible to deny that the doctrine of blockade does materially assist one belligerent in his contest with another. And it is to be observed, that Mr. Cobden's argument proceeds upon this assumption. Admitting the possibility of war, he also admits that there must be a right of blockade which ought to be respected by neutrals. Cases constantly occur in which the belligerents are so weak and the neutrals are so strong that any laws of blockade might be disregarded with impunity. But Mr. Cobden seems to admit that there are circumstances in which belligerents are entitled to be left alone in the ring, and that when such circumstances occur it is the duty of neutrals to abstain from any communication with one of the parties engaged. If, for instance, there be a naval arsenal which is blockaded by a squadron, or if there be a commercial harbour which is blockaded by sea and invested by land, in either case Mr. Cobden admits that any neutral ship attempting to break such a blockade ought to be liable to confiscation. The real point at issue, therefore, is whether the doctrine of blockade as at present understood should not be so altered as to confine it within narrower limits.

It was said during the debate upon Mr. Horsfall's motion that the proposed reform of international law as to private property at sea was a mere idle theory, because the new rule proposed could never be enforced. Admitting, said Sir George Lewis, that it would be advantageous for each belligerent to respect the private property of the other belligerent at sea, such a rule cannot be carried into effect. Even if treaties or declarations made in peace could be made binding during war, it was said that there is no means of compelling the opposing party to observe the new rules. But, as Mr. Cobden observes, "at the worst this would only leave us where we now are." Besides which, let us hope, for the honour of human nature, that few judges sitting in a prize tribunal would dare to condemn a ship seized in violation of a law solemnly agreed upon by all the maritime powers. But admitting the impossibility of enforcing the proposed rule as to private property at sea being free from capture, this objection does not apply to the proposed change in the law of blockade. Blockade affects not only belligerents but neutrals, and the history of the Declaration of Paris shows that in these days neutral nations have practically the power to enforce whatever seems to them just. It is impossible to deny that the Declaration of Paris has deprived the British navy of a powerful means of annoyance. But British statesmen plainly saw that in any future war it would be impossible to enforce the ancient right of seizing enemies' goods on board a neutral ship, and therefore they abandoned the claim. Nor is there a doubt that in any future war no attempt will be made to enforce the right still claimed by this country to take British subjects from on board neutral ships. It may be assumed, therefore, that in future wars, neutral nations will find no difficulty in enforcing any regulations which they may think fit to adopt. The objection of impracticability is thus disposed of; and once more the real question is reduced to this—whether the present doctrine of blockade ought not to be restricted? Mr. Cobden, in his letter to Mr. Ashworth, shows conclusively the inconvenience and loss to which this country is put by the derangement of its commerce in consequence of war. It is clear that if this country were to be always at peace, and therefore always to play the part of a neutral, it would be our interest to extend the rights of neutrals as far as possible, and to insist upon their right to carry on their commerce as if there were no war. Until the present civil war, this was the condition of the United States, and

Of the 80,000 police-books of may take for the situation and therefore, to say the charms of it around it. The which are very be useful to cle The society as many imag the idea that, north," anything king is a man



the Americans were the champions of neutral rights. Their principle was simply this:—because England and France are at war, that is no reason why American trade should suffer. But now the wheel of fortune has come round. America is at war with herself, and the principle of Mr. Cobden is simply this:—because the North and the South are at war, that is no reason why English trade should suffer, and why the hard-working people of Lancashire should be reduced to starvation. The blockade, says Mr. Cobden, “will, I fear, bring many of the evils of war home to our doors, and plunge an ingenious and industrious population, whose recent improvement and elevation we have witnessed with pride, into the depths of pauperism and misery.” The vehemence with which the Americans, during the present contest, have asserted their right to establish a blockade of the Southern ports, and the extreme inconvenience to which the South has been put by the blockade, amply justify the patriotism of those English jurists who so greatly extended the doctrines of international law in favour of belligerents. But in those days neutrals were weak, and England, the greatest maritime power, was a belligerent. Things are now changed. Neutrals are strong, and the chances are that the greatest maritime power will henceforth also be, as Mr. Cobden says, “the great neutral power.” Such being the case, it is obviously the interest of England that the rights of neutrals should be extended, and that the new code of maritime law should, if possible, receive the sanction of all the maritime powers.

The three changes proposed by Mr. Cobden are undoubtedly changes which will operate most favourably towards neutrals. The first, which concerns the exemption of private property at sea during war, has already been amply discussed in these columns.

The second change, which would restrict the right of blockade to naval arsenals, and to towns besieged at the same time by land, will of course afford neutrals an opportunity of trading to many ports from which, according to present rules, they would be excluded. Thus, at the present moment, there is not a single port in the Southern States of America, to which, under the proposed regulation, the ships of Europe would be denied access.

The third change, which would exempt the merchant ships of neutrals on the high seas from the liability to be searched in time of war, is a change not only of the utmost importance to commerce, but one to which there is little objection. Enemy's property on board a neutral ship being now exempt from seizure, the only kind of property for which search is made is contraband. But even munitions of war are not contraband unless they are destined for an enemy's country. Before free-trade had increased the intercourse between nations, and when the commerce of the world was comparatively small, it was no great inconvenience to neutral vessels to be stopped upon the high seas in order to be searched. But in these days of steamers and electric telegraphs—when every sea is crowded with passenger-ships, mail-packets, and merchantmen—it is intolerable that, because any two nations are at war, every other nation should be bound to submit to have every ship stopped and examined by the belligerent cruisers. If, indeed, a neutral vessel should be found within a few miles of the coast of one of the belligerents, there might be some ground for permitting the search. But some cogent proof of the intention on the part of a neutral ship to aid a belligerent should be produced, before the right of search ought to be capable of being exercised.

In the present state of the world it is obvious that neutrals will be less than ever disposed to submit to inconvenience because two nations choose to go to war. They have rights as well as belligerents, and they will probably enforce them. Whatever practical difficulties exist as to exempting the private property of a belligerent from capture, no such difficulties exist as to the proposed change in the law of blockade or the right of search. The free-trade policy of this country has undoubtedly aggravated the inconvenience to which neutrals are put in time of war. Mr. Cobden is probably right in saying that such a system is incompatible with this new commercial policy. “If this scheme of universal dependence,” he says, “is to be liable to sudden dislocation whenever two governments choose to go to war, it converts a manufacturing industry such as our own into a lottery in which the lives and fortunes of multitudes of men are at stake.” In short, neutrals cannot afford to be ruined because there is war, nor is there any reason why they should submit to any such calamity. The rules of international law were framed by powerful belligerents. Why should they not be revised by powerful neutrals?

#### DRESDEN.

Of the 80,000 travellers who are said annually to be registered in the police-books of Dresden, so large a proportion consists of English, that we may take for granted that a large number of our readers are acquainted with the situation and external appearance of the Saxon capital. It is needless, therefore, to say a word about its almost unrivalled collections, or even about the charms of the scenery which is to be found in a circle of twenty miles around it. There are, however, one or two misconceptions with regard to it, which are very prevalent amongst well-informed people, and which it may be useful to clear up.

The society of Dresden, although good, is by no means so remarkable as many imagine. Nothing, indeed, can be farther from the truth than the idea that, because Dresden has been called the “Florence of the north,” anything of a Medicean character attaches to its present rulers. The king is a man of very considerable cultivation. He is an excellent Italian

scholar, has translated the “Divina Commedia,” and what is perhaps more remarkable, he is a very learned jurist; but, we believe on principle, he has never attempted to collect round him men of learning or genius. The other members of the Royal Family are not conspicuous, with the exception of the crown princess, the granddaughter of Gustavus IV., of Sweden, who is justly celebrated for her charming manners. The court is intensely Catholic, all the more so from living amidst a Protestant population, and the rigour of its creed affects, not a little, its relations to society. The Saxon nobility are, speaking generally, very poor, very proud, and very unlettered. The middle classes are also poor and singularly provincial. The pleasantest portion of the German society consists of non-Dresdeners, who have been led, from various motives of convenience, to settle on the banks of the Elbe. A large number of Russians spend part of the year at Dresden, and amongst these are generally to be found some persons of distinction. The majority, however, are said to be semi-German traders from the Baltic provinces. There is also a very large English colony, which is constituted, like most English colonies abroad, of the representatives of three or four different strata of English society, and varies from year to year. Relations more or less intimate between Poland and Saxony have been kept up ever since the days of Augustus the Strong, and a few Poles are usually to be found at Dresden during the winter months. They live, however, very much amongst themselves, and are hardly seen in general society. There is also, of course, a large diplomatic corps, which is not in any way different from similar bodies in other capitals. If, however, it were removed, society, on the large scale, would cease to exist.

A new quarter has recently sprung up, composed of broad streets intersecting each other at right angles, and filled with handsome, well-arranged houses; but the system of drainage is not good, and the town cannot be pronounced to be healthy. One of the commonest complaints is a sort of low fever of a typhoid character. The houses are warmed by stoves. There are large coal-pits in the neighbourhood, and coal is the ordinary fuel, so that Dresden in winter presents the spectacle, so rare on the Continent, of a city overhung by a dense black cloud.

The religious reaction which was pushed so far in Berlin from 1850 to 1857 never obtained a complete triumph in the Church of Saxony. The Government, indeed, favoured it, but the Saxon is of a singularly sober temperament, slow to be moved from his old beliefs, and very sensitive of dictation in spiritual matters. The fact, too, that many of the livings are in the gift of private patrons, has made it difficult for the Minister of Public Worship to encourage the Neo-Lutheran theology as much as he might have wished to do. If he has not, however, succeeded in making the Saxon Church reactionary, he has made it insignificant. It does not count at this moment a single name of real eminence. Von Ammon, the last Saxon divine who can justly be called famous, died a few years ago. The most distinguished ecclesiastic at present in Dresden is Dr. Liebner, who belongs to the school of speculative, mystical orthodoxy, of which Martensen, of Copenhagen, is perhaps the most eminent representative. Dr. Käuffer, who has written much upon Christianity in eastern countries; Dr. Pfeilschmidt, who occupies himself chiefly with the history of the Reformation; and Dr. Thenius, a learned Orientalist, are perhaps the other most distinguished divines. The city parishes are very large, so large that one clergyman has under his pastoral charge a population of 25,000; and it is said that he, his colleague, and his assistant, have celebrated in one year between eight and nine hundred baptisms, with a proportionate number of marriages and funerals.

None of the numerous artists who inhabit Dresden attain the first rank of excellence, with the exception of M. Schnorr, whose frescoes in illustration of the Nibelungen Lied are conspicuous amongst the treasures of art which make the glory of Munich. M. Schnorr became acquainted with King Louis, then the crown prince of Bavaria, many years ago, in Rome, and was summoned by him to his capital when he ascended the throne. He is now Director of the Gallery at Dresden, but is also engaged in painting a great picture of Luther before the Emperor Charles V. for King Maximilian of Bavaria. Bendemann, who painted the frescoes in the reception-rooms of the palace at Dresden, has gone to Düsseldorf. Rietschl, the sculptor, is dead; and so is Retzsch, who, although not to be named in the same category with these great artists, had a wide reputation in this country. M. Grüner, well-known in London, is Director of the Cabinet of Engravings.

Few men of letters now reside at Dresden. Whilst Tieck was alive his house was a sort of centre for them, and the traditions of that period have still been kept up by his friend and fellow-labourer, Count Baudissin; but the growing importance of Berlin is beginning to have the same effect upon Dresden which London has had on Edinburgh. M. Hettner, who has written travels in Greece, and is now engaged in writing the literary history of the last century, is, perhaps, the best known name in the literary world at Dresden. Till recently Auerbach lived there, as did also Gutzkow, but they have both gone, the one to Berlin, and the other to Weimar.

Natural science has no very distinguished representatives at Dresden. Dr. Carus, the physiologist, who had once some reputation, would seem to have outlived his fame, and none of the other physicians of the place have more than a local celebrity.

The theatre is still one of the best on the Continent. Dawisson, whose services are retained by the management, is probably the greatest tragic actor in Germany, and Devrient, who still performs from time to time, has always, and deservedly, occupied a high position. The opera is also con-



sidered good, and the orchestra is admirable. As usual in Germany, the theatre is subsidised by the State, and thus the prices of admission are kept low, and the director is enabled to put upon the stage a higher class of works than might be possible if he were completely dependent on the taste of the audience. Amongst most cultivated Germans, Shakespeare is perhaps as familiarly known as he is in England. This could hardly have been the case if managers had been left entirely to their own resources. Education is extremely cheap, and judicious people may obtain excellent masters for their children at a very moderate outlay. Three shillings is considered a high price for a lesson. The great gymnasium or public school, called the *Kreuz Schule*, is presided over by a man of considerable learning, and turns out very good classical scholars, according to the German acceptance of that term. But, although in the opinion of some the German idea is superior to the English idea of scholarship, classical acquirement is not what is sought for by most English parents who go to Dresden with their families; and the other schools which lay themselves out for an English connection are probably of no extraordinary merit.

The Saxon accent is fairly, but by no means extremely good. There was a time when in England it was a sufficient recommendation for a governess to say that she had studied German in Dresden. The Hanoverians are at present in fashion, and their pronunciation, bating some affectations, is perhaps really the best.

Game is extremely ill preserved in the neighbourhood of Dresden, and the right of shooting within reasonable distance of the town is really not worth having. The market is chiefly supplied from the great preserves within the Austrian frontier. On the other hand, the fishing in Saxon Switzerland, and even nearer, is very good, and not expensive.

Police regulations are not severe. The passport is, if the traveller means to reside any length of time in Dresden, deposited with the police, and a receipt is given in exchange for it. The passport is returned when this is produced, previous to departure. The powers of the police are, however, if not often exercised, extremely arbitrary, and cases not unfrequently arise in which English subjects come into collision with the authorities. In some instances, our countrymen have been grievously in the wrong. If sons of Englishmen, remarkable for their wealth and religious activity, will play the adventurer in foreign capitals, other and less ambitious travellers must pay the penalty. Quarrels, however, between the police and English residents generally arise out of the breach of some absurd *convenance* of German official life, and the inferior authorities, at least, are only too happy to be able to put the proud islanders in the wrong. The small official feels himself instinctively the object of our contempt, and revenges himself accordingly.

It is often said that those at present in power dislike the English, and do their best to make the place uncomfortable to them. Unquestionably there is some truth in the first part of this assertion; but the second is more than over-stated. The policy of England in supporting the Constitutional party on the Continent, has been very distasteful to an Ultramontane Court with strong Austrian inclinations, and closely connected with the family which lately reigned in Tuscany, but there is no intentional persecution of the English, although one or two unpleasant occurrences have given some colour to such a notion.

The revolution which broke out in Paris in February, 1848, found its way to Dresden *via* Berlin, but the crisis did not arrive in Saxony till 1849. The insurrection which took place in the spring of that year was put down by Prussian troops, and in 1850, almost the whole of the concessions which had been made to the Liberal party in 1848 were abrogated, and things returned to the footing on which they stood under the Constitution of 1831. The late king was, however, a man of good sense, and did not push his triumph so far as his power would, perhaps, have enabled him to have done. The moving spirit of Saxon politics during the last years of his reign and up to the present time has been M. von Beust, a man of conspicuous ability, but who has unfortunately pursued a line of policy which is highly distasteful to all the best of his countrymen, and which only the smallness of the means at his command has prevented proving ruinous to Germany. It was he who, through the whole of the Eastern war, exerted himself to keep the minor States of the Confederation faithful to their Russian predilections, and it was he who, happily without complete success, counselled Austria to adopt a policy entirely subservient to the views of St. Petersburg. It is he who has consistently laboured to induce the smaller States to form a confederation apart from Austria or Prussia, thus perpetuating the disunion of Germany and giving a most powerful means of attack to either France or Russia. In his management of internal affairs he has steered a middle course between the Liberals and the more extreme Conservatives, and has played in this respect, as in others, on a smaller scale, the rôle of M. Manteuffel. His newspaper, the *Dresdener Journal*, shows itself, in most European questions, bitterly hostile to England. He it was who gave up Count Teleki, and his influence, aided no doubt by family considerations, has made the Saxon royal house most determined in its opposition to the unification of Italy. Much has been done of late years for the better organization of the courts of justice, and for the administration of the law in Saxony. In all such questions the King takes the deepest interest. Few monarchs, indeed, are so laborious. He works as hard as the busiest of his *employés*. The results are seen in the increasing prosperity of his dominions. The army is respectable. The finances are in good order. Education is very widely diffused. Railways have penetrated most parts of

the country. Manufactures flourish, and the law for the abolition of Guilds, which came into operation on the 1st of January of this year, will be of great advantage to industry. The people are, in general, tolerably satisfied with their condition, but they desire a freer Constitution. That of 1831 is a little too antiquated for their tastes, although in their Upper Chamber only the princes of the blood sit by hereditary right. The time has gone by, at least for the present, when civilized nations will consent to be well governed, without having themselves the lion's share in their government. Saxony will ere long have to yield to the pressure of the times. Of all this, however, the visitor hears little in Dresden. In Leipzig, more politics are talked in a day, than in the capital in a week. Somehow or other, Dresden has fallen behind the age. Those who linger in it for a few summer days to see the picture gallery, to walk on the terrace of Brühl, and to watch the sunset from the bridge, see the best side of the fair but rather tiresome city.

#### THE THEATRICAL FUND DINNER.

THE scruples of a portion of society as to the lawfulness of plays, and the disrelish of the whole of society for an atmosphere of gas and sawdust, have gone far to banish the theatre from the list of polite entertainments. Many people, very anxious to be amused, prefer such forms of amusement as do not necessitate narrow seats, bad air, and the probability of a head-ache, or a cold on the following day. Too often, as the poet tells us, it happens that

"—— tender beauty, looking for her coach,  
Protrudes her gloveless hand, perceives the shower,  
And draws her tippet closer round her throat;  
On the morrow  
She coughs at breakfast, and her gruff papa  
Cries, 'There you go! This comes of playhouses.'"

Too often again the "gruff papa," who has been tempted in a moment of weakness into a theatrical expedition, has reason to complain that his knees have been outraged by unnatural compression, that the music has been second-rate, the pauses long, the play a thoroughly stupid one, and the acting in every way worthy of the play. Our generation is not one of transcendental abilities, and the dramatic profession is labouring, it must be confessed, under a remarkable dearth of genius. No approach to a good tragic actress is to be found; and all London has been rushing for a year past to see a Frenchman support the part of the grandest Shaksperian heroes. Even for comedy and melodrama we are scantily supplied, and a flagging interest has too often to be aroused by some startling extravagance, or unusually gorgeous spectacular effect. Some brilliant exceptions there are, of course, to the general rule of dullness, but on the whole we believe those best acquainted with the subject would be the readiest to admit that the drama is just now anything but in a flourishing condition. Prejudice is still firm, fashion is neglectful, and there is scarcely talent enough in writers or actors to lead prejudiced or fashionable people to make a change in their habits.

In the face of such serious discouragements the leaders of the profession, with laudable energy and zeal, are gradually forcing a way for themselves and their less distinguished companions to a higher and more dignified position in society, than it has been customary hitherto to accord to them. Actors have lived down the ill-natured sarcasms which used to be directed against their social irregularities. If they are nothing else, they are, in most instances, exceedingly respectable, and the dinner which was given last Monday in honour of one of their most important institutions, affords excellent proof of the high tone of feeling which exists among them, and of the good sense, justice, and mutual kindness which actuate a class, traditionally supposed to be improvident, unprincipled, and quarrelsome. We might search far among the ranks of lawyers, clergymen, or county members, for two more humorous and sensible after-dinner speakers, than the gentlemen upon whom the burthen of the proceedings fell. Messrs. Wigan and Buckstone have both had a lengthened experience of their craft, and both alluded feelingly to the trials which it entails and vicissitudes to which it is exposed. Both, however, are strenuous supporters of its dignity and importance. Mr. Wigan, in proposing the health of the army, spoke gratefully of the British soldier, as "the missionary of the stage," and recounted how the tedium of the camp before Sebastopol was relieved by theatrical representations,—how certain hirsute Guardsmen were accustomed to shave themselves twice a day, with a view to keeping their chins appropriately smooth for the female parts with which they were entrusted,—and how on one occasion, in the theatre of the Naval Brigade, an apology was offered for the omission of the air "Black-eyed Susan," on the undeniably good ground that "the hand" who was accustomed to sing it had had his head blown off that morning in the trenches. An amusement, thus pursued literally "in the cannon's mouth," must, one would think, possess no ordinary interest for those who participate in it, and no doubt a good lively theatre ought to be extemporised in every camp where soldiers are kept long in suspense, and employed in monotonous occupations. But it is not on the mere universality of the taste for the drama that Mr. Wigan takes his stand. Actors, he thinks, fall short of their duty when they cease to instruct; still more, when they degenerate into absolute mountebanks and buffoons. "It has been brought against us, that we are too anxious to laugh, to make laugh, to juggle and play tricks, and to think when we pocket the proceeds, that the affair is ended. Whenever we do so, we degrade ourselves and wrong the public." It would be a fortunate circumstance if Mr. Wigan's theory could be a little more kept in sight by the theatrical managers of the

day. Acting, more frequent good taste is to be applauded than is infringed, yet a refinement.

Nothing both orators were Theatrical Fund seen its funds g about £13,000 annuitants are a received upward in the fact that length or place thus confined, a excluded from it of the society in rendered a help that of a lady w months become e tune, had subscr annuity of £60. subscribers to th do so by any ora them to speak fo

Mr. Buckstone upon that line of own. He is one intention of claim he said, "I hope infirm." One par approval; he had late Lady Morgan impressive and tou

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Mr. Buckstone l verted point of clo gloomy view of the to a pleasant villa round the may-pole "but it's all done a inquired the indign see people enjoy th there is a "serious in the Haymarket, after night, to lau recent agitation es that we should find poor men, women, some people prefer t days! Business goes the Lord Chancellor repeat on the first c trade—how is relig the most respectabl accident happen to opponents of the n is much scandalize no way outraged; of Lent, others wit there is no harm i and no doubt an the afternoon may r work in the eveni theatre in Passion W young ladies intent ay one who knows v the convictions; and erty to anything v cannot but believe t discretion, and will serve Lent as the the expense of means over-opulent



day. Acting, if it were so, would be a better profession, and the theatre a more frequent resort to the better instructed classes of society; at present, good taste is too frequently sacrificed for the sake of bringing down the applauding thunder of the gallery; and though propriety may not be actually infringed, yet a style of facetiousness is permitted which is, to say the least of it, somewhat at variance with the strictest dictates of modesty and refinement.

Nothing could be more satisfactory than the financial statement which both orators were able to lay before the supporters of the institution. The Theatrical Fund has been established for eighteen years, and each year has seen its funds growing and its sphere of usefulness enlarged. Its capital is about £13,000, and its subscribing members number 130. Seventeen annuitants are at present in receipt of aid, and have during the past year received upwards of £700. The institution differs from other provident societies in the fact that the aid granted is subject to no restrictions as to age, sex, length or place of service. The Drury Lane and Covent Garden Funds are thus confined, and many of those most in need of their assistance are thus excluded from it. Mr. Wigan quoted two instances, which place the working of the society in a most attractive light: one was the case of a young man, rendered a helpless cripple by the falling of a stage platform; and the other, that of a lady who, entirely dependent on her own exertions, had in a few months become entirely blind. Neither of these, at the time of their misfortune, had subscribed above £20 to the Fund, yet both are now entitled to an annuity of £60. If such facts will not induce his fellow-actors to become subscribers to the Fund, Mr. Wigan might well despair of inducing them to do so by any oratorical exertion, and we think that he was wise in leaving them to speak for themselves.

Mr. Buckstone was less sentimental in his address, and ventured boldly upon that line of comedy which has come to be considered as peculiarly his own. He is one of the oldest subscribers to the Fund, and announced his intention of claiming his annuity, should he stand in need of it; "though," he said, "I hope I shall not only never need it, but never become old and infirm." One part of his speech must have claimed universal sympathy and approval; he had to announce a legacy bequeathed to the society by the late Lady Morgan, herself of theatrical extraction, and the heroine of an impressive and touching poem:—

"How delightful 'tis to meet  
My Lady Morgan in the street,  
Then to 'gammon' her in the *Examiner*  
With a paragraph short and sweet."

Neither the *Examiner*, we are certain, nor any other of our contemporaries, would wish to speak in any but respectful language of so considerate and generous a donation, and the "paragraph, short and sweet," to which the occasion might give rise, could merely extol the lady's munificence and commend her example to the rest of society.

Mr. Buckstone had naturally a few words to say about the much-controverted point of closing the theatres in Passion Week. He takes a rather gloomy view of the clergy of the Establishment. Once, he says, he went on to a pleasant village-green, and inquired whether the people still danced round the may-pole upon the first of May. "We used to," was the reply, "but it's all done away with by the clergy—they put it down." "What for?" inquired the indignant comedian. "Well, Sir, because they can't abear to see people enjoy themselves." Mr. Buckstone cannot help being aware that there is a "serious party" who would be delighted to put down his maypole in the Haymarket, and who "can't abear" that the public should go, night after night, to laugh at "Blue Lambs" and "American Cousins." The recent agitation especially provokes him. Why, he asks, and we confess that we should find it difficult to answer him—Why should 5,000 or 6,000 poor men, women, and children, be deprived of their daily bread because some people prefer that other people should not go to the theatre on particular days? Business goes on, pleasure goes on, the merchant deals, the lawyers talk, the Lord Chancellor invites her Majesty's justices and counsel to an excellent repast on the first day of Term; music halls and casinos drive a roaring trade—how is religion or consistency consulted by shutting up a few of the most respectable places of public entertainment, which from the merest accident happen to fall within the Lord Chamberlain's jurisdiction? The opponents of the new arrangement will not, we suspect, have been nearly so much scandalized by the change as they expected. Decorum is in no way outraged; some people attach a grave importance to the duties of Lent, others without the least intentional disrespect to religion think there is no harm in going about their daily pursuits and amusements; and no doubt an actor who sees the Lord Chancellor hard at work in the afternoon may reasonably think he is doing no great harm by being hard at work in the evening. That there are people who think it no sin to go to the theatre in Passion Week may be a very melancholy consideration for romantic young ladies intent upon a revived mediævalism; but it can scarcely distress any one who knows what his generation is, and what are its habits, its tastes, and its convictions; and while we fully appreciate the sensitiveness of the London clergy to anything which seemed to imply disrespect to a solemn period, we cannot but believe that the Lord Chamberlain has acted with manliness and discretion, and will have with him the verdict of society in leaving people to observe Lent as they please, and in refusing to gratify a sentimental prejudice at the expense of inflicting a real hardship on an industrious, and by no means over-opulent class.

## KEW GARDENS.

SIR WILLIAM HOOKER's annual report to the First Commissioner of Public Works on the state of the botanical establishment at Kew has lately been issued for the information of members of Parliament, along with the estimate of the amount required to meet the claims of this institution on the public purse for the present year. This document eminently merits attention, not only on account of the important subjects of which it treats, but also because, if we understand aright, it is now under contemplation to remove the natural history collection from their present situation in the British Museum, and to establish them in a somewhat similar independent position. By seeing how botany prospers under the rule of Sir William Hooker at Kew, we may be able to form some idea as to whether zoology would be likely to get on if placed under Professor Owen's superintendence at South Kensington.

The Kew report commences by informing us that the number of visitors to the gardens in 1861 was more than 480,000, of which we may remark, *en passant*, nearly 190,000, or considerably more than one-third of the whole, entered on Sundays. As this is little less than the average yearly number of visitors to the British Museum during the past seven years, it appears that distance from the immediate centre of the metropolis does not of itself constitute a seriously disturbing element as regards popularity in an institution of this kind. It follows, therefore, that the proposed new Institution of Natural History at South Kensington may, if otherwise attractive, expect its fair share of visitors, though not so near the centre of population as in its present situation at Bloomsbury. The next paragraphs of Sir William Hooker's report relate to the works accomplished in the Botanic Gardens during the past year. The most important subject mentioned is that of the grand attempt now in progress to introduce into India some of the finest and most valuable of the *Cinchonaceæ*, or quinine-producing plants, of South America. It is a singular fact, and one rather at variance with the ordinarily accepted view of the separate creation of species, that the only certain specific against the prevalent fevers of the Eastern tropics, consists of the bark of trees of a certain group of plants, which are wholly confined to the Western hemisphere. But, in the words of the poet,

"Nequicquam Deus abscedit  
Prudens oceano dissociabili  
Non tangenda rates transiliunt vada."

In vain have the health-producing trees been hidden amongst the distant summits of the Andes on the other side of the Atlantic. Peruvian bark has been a subject of importation ever since the discovery of the New World by Europeans. After spending large sums on its purchase for a long series of years, our legislators have been persuaded to make an attempt to save the nation's pocket, and still further remedy the apparent injustice of the laws of nature by introducing cinchona-trees into the countries where they are most needed. The demand for the bark was increasing, while the supply, principally, we believe, from the wasteful method employed in collecting it, was diminishing. During these last few years the sum expended by the Government of India on the purchase of quinine is stated to have risen to the enormous amount of *fifty thousand pounds* per annum and upwards. It was certainly high time that steps should be taken in the matter. Parties were accordingly despatched, a few years ago, to the Andes to collect seeds and young plants of the cinchona-trees. Some of them were transmitted direct to India, under the care of gardeners recommended for the purpose by the authorities at Kew. Plants and seeds were also brought to the gardens at Kew, and a large crop of seedlings raised there in a forcing-house erected for the purpose. The results already obtained seem to have been most successful. Eight thousand of these precious little trees are already "in most vigorous growth" in the Neigherrie Hills, and a further stock of "2,170 healthy young plants," now in the Kew Gardens, "will be ready for transmission to India at the proper season." In Ceylon and in Jamaica favourable results have also been obtained, the only *contretemps* having taken place at Trinidad, where the seeds have failed to germinate. So far, then, there is every prospect of success. If the attempt continues to prosper, forests of cinchona will soon clothe the slopes of the Neigherries and heights of Newera Ellia, and a most important benefit to mankind will have been effected, along with a not inconsiderable saving of the public expenditure.

In the "pleasure-grounds or arboretum adjoining the botanic gardens," another important undertaking is now in progress. Great want has long been felt in the Kew establishment of a proper place for cultivating the trees and shrubs of temperate climates, especially those of our colonial possessions. A new large conservatory, to be devoted solely to this purpose, was designed in 1859, and is now in course of execution. It will be composed of a centre, two octagons and two wings, united by a long central vista, and covering with glass altogether an area of not less than an acre and three-quarters, more than double the space occupied by the great palm-house, with which many of our readers are, no doubt, acquainted. The octagons are already finished and filled with plants, and the grand centre will be completed this autumn. But Sir William Hooker is rather uneasy to find that the First Commissioner has, as yet, made "no provision for erecting the wings," and he has therefore addressed a special memorial to the Office of Works on the subject, urging divers and weighty reasons for the immediate completion of the building. Mr. Cowper need not scruple to ask Parliament for the requisite sum, and we hope that the memorial may induce him to do so without delay. It is true the House turned restive the other day when



asked to guarantee half a million or so for the new Law Courts, but that amount is not required to finish the winter-garden at Kew; and neither the nation nor the nation's representatives will grudge a few extra pounds spent upon so popular and so well-conducted an institution.

The third and last head of the Kew report treats of the scientific department of the establishment, and on this subject it may be well to make a few explanatory remarks. It is not generally known to the public that the Herbarium at Kew—which, with the recent additions made to it, is now, we believe, undoubtedly the most extensive and the best-arranged collection of dried plants in the world,—is to a great extent the private property of Sir William Hooker. On that eminent botanist first taking office at Kew, there was neither herbarium nor library attached to the gardens, and it was consequently impossible that the latter establishment could be brought to any degree of efficiency. The newly-appointed director immediately devoted his own large collections and very extensive library to the public use. Mr. Bentham, the president of the Linnean Society, afterwards followed this laudable example, giving a large series of dried plants and 1,200 volumes of botanical works to the establishment, merely on the condition that they should be rendered available to working botanists. These generous donations formed the nucleus of the present extensive herbarium and accompanying botanical library at Kew, constant additions having been made of late years from collections formed by persons in the employment of the Admiralty and other departments of the Government, and by purchase out of the funds annually voted to the institution by Parliament.

"Such is the complete and useful state to which this department has now attained," Sir William Hooker tells us—and his statement will be fully corroborated by every one acquainted with the facts of the case—"that no botanical work of any importance now appears either in England or abroad, without acknowledging the assistance of the Royal Gardens. Scarcely a day passes throughout the year without numerous applications for the names of plants, or for other information concerning them, by residents in our colonies and in India, nurserymen, amateurs, and scientific botanists." Many botanists of different nations "take up their quarters temporarily at Kew, or make repeated visits to it, for the sole purpose of working in the herbarium and library" (for which every facility is accorded to them by Sir William Hooker and his distinguished son), and "an active correspondence is kept up with all parts of the world."

We have hardly space now to devote to other important topics of Sir William Hooker's report. The Museums of Economic Botany in the grounds of the Botanic Gardens, containing a most useful and instructive series of botanical specimens, and their manufactured products, by which the great practical value of botanical science is fully exhibited, "receive constant additions of objects of interest and value, and are annually resorted to by persons in search of information regarding woods, drugs, dye-stuffs, and textile materials. The most important step, however," it is remarked, "is the commencement of a uniform series of inexpensive Colonial Floras." These are general works upon the plants of our various colonies, for the production of which Sir William Hooker has prepared an elaborate scheme. In the execution of this undertaking he has been materially assisted by the liberality of various Colonial Governments, who have devoted sums of money in aid of the praiseworthy object. Enough has surely been said to convince our readers of the thorough state of efficiency of the Botanical Institution at Kew. Its popularity is abundantly testified to by the 380,000 visitors who resorted to the Gardens during the past year. Its scientific excellence is recognized by the universal voice of naturalists. Why should we not have a zoological establishment of equal efficiency? Let the natural history collections be removed from the disadvantageous position, in conjunction with a mass of heterogeneous objects, which they now occupy, and placed, if no better situation can be found for them, as the Government proposes, at South Kensington. Let them be put under a director responsible to the Government, and untrammelled by the present Board of Trustees, their absurd rules, and their arbitrary secretary. We are much mistaken if the efficiency of the New Museum of Natural History would not be greatly increased by such a change. The system pursued at Kew has succeeded so well as regards one branch of science, that there is every reason for adopting a similar plan in re-organizing the general establishment of natural history.

#### THE FRENCH AND FLEMISH EXHIBITION.

MR. GAMBART deserves some genuine thanks from the English public for having established the London Exhibitions of French Art, the ninth of which opened on the 12th instant. These have done more than merely please the visitors, and give many of them something like a new impression. They have exercised a very substantial influence upon British art; an influence certain to continue increasing, and to be, at any rate for a while to come, wholly beneficial. All our own recent exhibitions witness to the newly-awakened consciousness of our painters that there is such a thing as French art, and that they have not a little to learn from it. France, in fact, stands far ahead of all other countries, at the present day, in *system of art*—in such qualities as admit of being studied and incorporated into one's own practice with advantage. England, in her pre-Raffaelite movement, has produced a valid set-off to this; but pre-Raffaelitism is rather a new starting-point and range, than a thoroughly developed system, like the French system of characterization and treatment. It is, therefore, not to be viewed as an equivalent substitute, though it may have a countervailing claim to respect, and may be even more fertile of great opportunities and results.

The merits of Mr. Gambart's French and Flemish Exhibitions have varied from year to year, reaching sometimes to excellence, once or twice scarcely transcending platitude. The present collection ranks among the very best, including as it does some splendid and several valuable specimens of distinguished painters, and maintaining throughout a highly creditable average, as our list will show. A fair proportion of the works come from the Paris Exhibition of last year.

9. *Bida: The Ceremony of Dosset*.—This, as the design indicates, is a Mohammedan ceremony, in which the devotees prostrate themselves before the horses' hoofs of the advancing riders. Like other finished chalk-drawings by the artist, it is full of admirable work, in drawing, national character, and style, to some extent obstructed by the perfect uniformity and neatness of handling.

11. *Juliette Bonheur-Peyrol: Dog and Puppies*.—Two carrot-brown puppies are getting up a sham quarrel in their imbecile way, one lying on its back between the fore-paws of the other. The mother, a wiry grey terrier, looks on with a skittish air. There is a good deal of fun in this trifle.

12. *Same: Cat and Kittens*.—A companion picture, and the better of the two. The matron is a small cat, of one of those dishevelled varieties common about France, with something of the Angora stock in them. She has placed a slain rat before the kittens, and presides at the lesson in mousing with an air of the most solemn pedagogy. The foremost kitten, velvet-furred and triangular-tailed, is happily hit off.

13. *Rosa Bonheur: Meadow Scene*.—Dated in the present year. The scene is Scotch; a thin scrubby heath, with grey hills behind, and a greyish clouded sky. Some oxen and sheep are taking their ease in the unluxuriant pasture-ground. The manner of painting is somewhat meagre, and the work, though meritorious, nothing worth mentioning for Mdlle. Bonheur.

19. *Henriette Browne: Interior of the Harem*.—If this lady paints the Harem from personal knowledge (as the Paris catalogue seemed to imply), the painting is a most valuable one; at any rate, it must remain extremely pleasing. The view which it presents of harem-life is that of sensitive, not of gorgeous or luscious, indolence. The women have soft, dreamy, susceptible faces; three of them seem to have had their thoughts wafted afar off as they listen to a girl some thirteen years of age, in white succinct drapery, who plays a flute. Another amuses herself with a small tortoise set upon a decorated stand; she puts out her finger, to make him turn aside as he advances. The vapoury manner of execution harmonizes with the lingering, "lotus-eating" conception of the subject.

20. *Buchser: The Goatherd*.—A clever picturesque group: the artist evidently understands the minutiae of his subject.

28. *Cermak: Raid of Montenegrins in the Herzegovina*.—This is wrongly named: it should be "Raid of Bashi-Bazouks," as in the Paris catalogue. The substance of the picture—and most substantial it is—is one of those lavish displays of naked and brawny womanhood which English people are less disposed to tolerate than French. With some spasmodic vigour, the picture was on the whole a principal eyesore of the Palais des Beaux Arts, and need not have been re-produced in Pall Mall.

29. *Same: Study of a Rayah, Herzegovina*.—A half figure, about life-size, in a great red cape and hood. There is a manly way of treatment in this large plain mass of colour, and in the work generally.

30. *Chavet: The Toilet*.—A very good specimen of the small cabinet pictures directly founded on Meissonnier. A lady, dressed only in her shift, is putting on her shoe, seated before a cheval-glass. The treatment is as straightforward as the subject.

38. *Decamps: Truffle-hunting*.—Catalogued as "his last work, unfinished." It is a magnificent laying-in of a picture, carried uniformly up to a near point of completion; of great value for artists to study, and perhaps more satisfactory in its tone of colour than if the admirable painter had, according to his usual practice, substituted a hot brown hue for the now prevalent greys. The manner is as broad as Courbet's, with less loading of surface. A rugged, picturesque rustic has set his pig to grub the soil with his snout; another man and a boy, with their porker, file off to the left. A group of tree-trunks bisects the mid-ground: the sky, salmon-red and pale yellow at the horizon, is as truly ominous of rain, in colour and in its smudgy lines, as are the dense formless layers of cloud which close it above in gloomy grey.

51. *Duverger: Convalescent*.—M. Duverger continues to be one of the finest and truest of domestic painters, as expressive as Frère, somewhat less sweet, and more solidly defined in style. The general resemblance is great, and the superiority by this time almost uncertain, though we have seen things by Frère more exquisite than any by Duverger. The general air of family solicitude in this "Convalescent" is charmingly given: the red-cheeked mother laying her pale, hectic boy in an easy chair, which a sister and brother push towards the fire, blown into brightness by another brother; the fireside spaniel going up to the convalescent (who may have been in bed for weeks) with the perfect familiarity of old; the grandmother in the adjoining kitchen, with a cup of broth.

53. *Same: A Naughty Boy*.—The culprit is crouching, with his arm across his face, in stubbornness which he would gladly waive but for shame, between his mother, who handles a switch, and his grandmother, seated as in the chair of justice, and holding out her hand in token of pardon upon repentance. A child munching an apple looks on with the apathy of personal security, yet not unmingled with awe at so formidable a crisis.

54. *Same: Game at Forfeits*.—Very good in expression, though perhaps a trifle too serious. The boy condemned to the forfeit has had to lay his head in his sister's lap, and hold his outspread palm behind his back, to guess who touches him. A mother reaches her infant forward to perform the feat; a bigger boy behind prepares to give a smack next; another has got a broom—which is scarcely fair.

56. *Same: The Water-drinkers*.—Deserves attention, particularly as showing the nicety with which French painters hit the right degree of emphasis in such simple subjects. A boy goes to drink at a large jar—the sort of common country

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ware, of a really chaste classic form, that one often finds in use about France: a sister gives a tumbler of the cooling liquid to a small girl. The boy is in his whole action strongly expressive of thirst, which yet is not pushed to any degree of painfulness or over-seriousness.

59. *Fichel: The Anniversary of a Victory—Guards' Mess-room.*—M. Fichel, like M. Chavet, is one of the Meissonnier men, with an individuality of his own. The style looks at first somewhat dry and unadaptable; but a little attention to the picture impresses its merits strongly. The officers of the Guards have been drinking "potations pottle-deep" to the memory of the victory, and are in various conditions of tipsy chivalry. One of them, graver in his view of military honour, retires from table unaffected by drink. Some one has been shying a plate out of the window, by which stands one of the mess-room servants, the image of the proverbial valet to whom these heroes, at any rate, are not mightily heroic. This figure, not to specify others, is unsurpassable.

60. *Fortin: The Breakfast.*—One of the better, though not of the very best, subjects of peasant-life; the handling broad and rather rough.

65. *Edouard P. Frère: Juvenile Field-day.*—A largeish picture of a very silly subject—a troop of boys playing at soldiers—painted, it may be feared, *pour ces Anglais*. Apart from the silliness, the picture is fair, but not good enough for M. Frère.

66. *Same: Good Friday at Notre Dame, Paris.*—A crucifix is exhibited in the sacristy for the devotion and offerings of the faithful, the great majority of them of the labouring classes. A widow holds her infant-girl to kiss the image, and a hard-worked elderly man in a blouse drops his son into the plate. The subsidiary faces are rather of the amiable meaningless class.

68. *Same: Old Women making Nets, Dieppe.*—Dated 1860. Extremely fine, and much the foremost of M. Frère's contributions this year. In a dark-brown room, lighted by one window, sit the two aged women, not very aged, their backs bowed and rounded from the task which has employed their unrelenting hands for years. A cat cautiously paces the silent room.

70. *Same: Young Boy Dressing.*—Slight in subject, but very satisfactory. The bare-legged boy sits on a bit of carpet, pulling on his blue stocking: he makes that operation his business for the moment. The figure is skilfully brought out in daylight from the dimmer parts of the room: the fire glows bright through a minute chink in the stove.

73. *Théodore C. Frère: View of Jerusalem.*—Larger and more fully carried out than most of the intense Orientalisms of M. Frère, and also fine.

75. *Fromentin: Arabs breaking-in Horses near the Seashore.*—A clever sketch, picturesque and spirited.

76. *Gallait: Roman Mother.*—A fair specimen of this highly-honoured Belgian painter. The mother, not more than nineteen or twenty years of age, is already acquiring a matronly look; her face has the character of Roman beauty, a little peaked and fine-drawn in feature. The infant, sleeping open-mouthed, is decidedly good; his slumber is deep, and he is a strapping boy, without being overdone either in the infantine or in the "heroic" mould of form.

77. *Gérôme: Aspasia's House at Athens.*—This picture is better described by its title in Paris, "Socrates calls for Alcibiades at Aspasia's." In the exhibition there, its merit was somewhat obscured by the extraordinary attraction of the Phryne and the Roman Augurs; seen in London, apart from any other work of the author, it will sustain and even enhance his fame. M. Gérôme is a painter of exalted power, which he subdues into what might almost be mistaken for tameness; and of exquisite taste, which he presents through a somewhat negative medium, in point of colour and handling, liable to veil it from unaccustomed eyes. In this picture we cannot eulogize the heads of either Aspasia or Alcibiades; they are the reverse of beautiful, and not specially characteristic. The female head next to Aspasia is blurred in a manner which no doubt has a purpose, but one exactly appreciable only by M. Gérôme. Socrates takes in both his left hand of Alcibiades, whose right rests on the undraped back of Aspasia, as she lies with her bust across his knees. A naked girl with a tambourine, over-ripe in the bud, to whom shame is a word without meaning, sidles up to Socrates, bent on turning the tables upon him if she can; an admirable artistic creation this, but rather strong meat for the babes of the British public. An old woman looks on from the threshold, and a Nubian female slave, in slaty purple, glances round as she passes off. A noble, shaggy, small-headed dog, a colossal head of a satyr (introduced apparently to remind one of the curious analogies of the Socratic face), and many delicious details of accessory under a blue sky, complete the picture. M. Gérôme is mainly a painter's painter, whose pungent choice and conception of subject make him nevertheless town-talk as well.

82. *Isabey: Ascending the Pass.*—A tumble-down mediæval street-scene, expressed with delightful picturesqueness, and no doubt some exaggeration. It is a very capital example of the painter.

84. *Jaques: Sheep going to Pasture.*—A small study-subject, excellent in quiet realization.

87. *Jonghe: The Morning.*—The figure of the little girl on the stool, who puts on her mother's slipper, is remarkably *spirituel* and pretty. The rest is cold in manner, and not more than ordinarily good.

88. *Same: The Music Lesson.*—More satisfactory as a whole than the preceding, but without any single point equally successful.

91. *Knaus: The Visit to the Beehives.*—A high-shouldered old ruralist, making the peaceful round of his grounds, with the soothing companionship of his bees. M. Knaus, deservedly celebrated as a painter of character and humorous subject, has introduced a good deal of pleasant leafy material into the background, but the want of charm in colour mars its effect.

101. *Lambinet: Oyster-Beds at Marly, Seine et Oise.*—A nice, fresh, simple landscape; the best of the six contributed by its agreeable painter.

103. *Lambron: Undertakers during Leisure Hours.*—This is a smaller duplicate of a picture by a new man, which excited much attention in Paris last year, through the deadly-lively oddity of its subject, and its high competence of execution.

It should have had a better place on the walls in Pall Mall. The subject is a squad of undertaker's men unbending at a cabaret outside the *barrière*. One crowns a small boy with his cocked hat; one, holding his professional whip, makes up to the waitress; and there are several other incidents of the same class in a composition of nearly twenty figures, all treated in a steady matter-of-fact way which constitutes a good deal of the fun of the thing. M. Lambron has made his mark decisively, and seems destined to eminence in a curious line of subject. He may be inferred, however, to be equally capable of doing something of quite different character from this, so free is it from mannerism or self-assertion.

112. *Laugée: The Latest Arrival.*—A new-born baby, cleanly got up in cap and shift, lies on the grandmother's or midwife's knee; its two sisters, girls of some nine and ten years, are taking a good look at it, and making its acquaintance deliberately. The mother, very weak and neat, sits up in bed with a watery smile; the pleasant, homely father, inured to these domestic incidents, smokes his pipe. Excellent in expression and breadth of treatment, and repaying a second inspection much better than the first.

114. *Leys: Paul Potter in the Studio.*—Dated as far back as 1853. It is the poorest specimen we know of this consummate painter, having no decided point, or special artistic quality.

115. *Same: Synagogue at Prague.*—Dated in 1852. This is a group of women and girls in an odd corner of the synagogue dimly lighted through a small loophole. It is picturesque, and much better than the preceding; but too obviously Rembrandt-like in aim, and varnishy in surface, and hardly worthy of M. Leys.

119. *Meissonnier: Corps de Garde.*—A very wonderful and perfect picture, fuller in subject and size than most of M. Meissonnier's: probably he has never done anything better. It is a work of last year, exhibited here for the first time. The denizens of the *corps de garde* are watching a game at cards played by two of their number: the loser, foredoomed to lose by his very face, and his way of sitting, is on his last legs; he shows in dubitation his cards to a clever, dark young gallant who sits by him. His antagonist is only waiting for the laying down of the much-pondered card to win: his two cronies are no less certain of the event. At the shoulder of the loser stands a man of fifty, with pale curly hair, wrinkled cheek, buff coat, and sword tilted up at an obtuse angle,—the impartial philosopher of the party, who forecasts the result with absolute candour, too philosophic even to play the Job's comforter when the upshot comes. Other figures are equally perfect: there is no other word for the items of the picture, or for its ensemble.

120. *Same: Punch.*—A small work of the current year; trivial in subject—a masker in the part of Punch, seated—yet very true and sharp in character, and brighter than usual in painting.

121. *Same: The Flute Player.*—This was the most admirable of the works exhibited last year in Paris by Meissonnier: it is a bit of magnificent minuteness. In a brown wainscoted room, washed by clear daylight with little shadow, the black-dressed flute-player stands practising before his music-stand. His face is of a subtle artistic type, full of fine shades of character; by a happy use of the full lighting of the room, or perhaps by a chance equally happy, his foot seems to be just raised, keeping time to the music.

127. *Pasini: Village of Ancient Cairo, on the Nile.*—Able and easy in its clearly blocked-out handling. Picturesque craft, with furled latteen sails, lie alongside upon the full-flowing Nile: the grey-blue sky deepens quietly to the zenith.

136. *Plassan: The New Novel.*—M. Plassan seems to have retrograded in excellence of late years: the doom of super-exquisite art. Of his three pictures in the present Exhibition, the above-named is the nicest, being less extreme in Plassanism. The glimpse out of window of flowers and dwelling-house is very pretty.

139. *Riedel: The Bathers.*—A picture much noticed last year in Paris. It has elements of success ample enough to make a charming picture: forcible sunlight glimpses, grace of subject, and of single figures—the sweet young girl of fifteen in especial; but the whole is vitiated from top to bottom by the anti-colourist colour.

141. *Ruiperez: Soldiers at Leisure.*—A Meissonnierism, which only misses being first-rate. The soldiers are playing dice upon a barrel.

142. *Same: The Music Lesson.*—Not an attractive picture of its class, yet of great merit. The costume is that of the Mazarin period; the colour has a certain quality of peculiarity, as in the slaty steel-grey of the lady's silk dress and the yellow velvet table-cloth.

159. *Joseph Stevens: The Siesta.*—We cannot understand so bad a picture from so masterly a painter. The subject is two hounds by a log fire; the hind-leg of the couchant white hound looks stunted and broken, perhaps through mismanagement of the shadow on the thigh.

163. *T. Crawford Thom: The Sledge.*—Mr. Thom, whose name comes new to us, is a pupil of Edouard Frère, and, we presume, a British subject. This is a very fair picture; the effect of wintry snow and of a scene "cabined, cribbed, confined," in dusky mist, being feelingly given.

169. *Trayer: The Young Family.*—M. Trayer treats domestic incidents with a certain largeness of manner which would count for more if his handling were not so clean and orderly. This picture of a baby on its nurse's knee touching at the lips of its four-year-old sister, is extremely good when one pauses over it—the softness of infantine flesh being expressed to a nicety.

181. *Van Moor: View of Venice.*—or rather of a porch of St. Mark's. A skilful architectural picture, rather heavy in touch, but with a true effect of light.

186. *Vetter: Bernard Palissy's Final Experiments.*—As a picture, this is not satisfactory; the painting being thin and poor, with no merit higher than that sort of knack which the French term *chique*, and the figures having a small, trivial air in relation to the scale of the work. There is a good deal of cleverness, however, in the expressions and the way of telling the story. Palissy, outworn



with work and failures, but indomitable in perseverance, sits near the oven with joined hands, concocting some new experiment: his wife directs the attention of a legal personage to the poor crackbrain, as his neighbours have now voted him: two cobblers, among several other gossips, confabulate in a corner—one holding a spoiled piece of Palissy-ware, the other significantly pointing to the temporal region of his head.

187. *Veyrassat: The Ferry-boat.*—M. Veyrassat is not in force this year, his colouring being glaring and hot. The present picture, however, is agreeable—the tender-tinted young trees showing against the left-hand sky have a sweet effect.

## MEN OF MARK.—No. XXXVII.

### THE MARQUIS OF LANSDOWNE, K.G., F.R.S.

SYDNEY SMITH, in one of his letters, asks, "Why does not every one praise the Marquis of Lansdowne?" A representative of the people, in the first United Parliament called in 1801—a Chancellor of the Exchequer who succeeded Pitt, and served under Lord Grenville and Charles James Fox in the Ministry of "All the Talents"—a Minister who has served four Sovereigns with fidelity and honour—an orator whose Ciceronian sentences belong to a past age of rhetoric—a politician of rare consistency and golden moderation—a munificent patron of learning and the arts, whose cultivated tastes and discriminating hospitality have brought around him the best intellects of his time,—the Marquis of Lansdowne possesses singular claims upon the regard and veneration of his countrymen. He is the only living statesman who connects the age of Pitt and Fox by official ties with that of our own day. He attended the funeral of Lord Nelson in St. Paul's Cathedral in an official capacity, and nearly half a century later the funeral of the Duke of Wellington as a past and proximate Minister of the Crown. After a political career thus protracted, he has lived to see every great object and principle advocated by him in youth and manhood, adopted by his opponents. He has found his early opinions embodied in the statute-book, and recognized as the basis and framework of modern legislation. It cannot be a barren or useless task for young politicians to trace the successive steps of a career so honourable and so prolonged, and to gather encouragement from the ultimate triumph of principles which were advocated with so much consistency and eloquence during long periods of darkness and discouragement. When the young student of contemporary history has seen how generously and unremittently the Marquis of Lansdowne laboured in the cause of Slave Abolition, the amelioration of the Criminal Code, the Emancipation of the Nonconformist, the Roman Catholic, and the Jew, the Education of the People, Parliamentary Reform, Municipal Reform, and all their cognate and subsidiary measures,—when he is told of the friendly encouragement which men of literature, science, and art, have ever received from the noble Marquis, he will be disposed to repeat Sydney Smith's enthusiastic question, and to ask why every one does not praise the Marquis of Lansdowne?

Henry Petty Fitz-Maurice was born at Lansdowne House, July 2, 1780. He was the son of the first Marquis of Lansdowne by his second wife, a daughter of the Earl of Upper Ossory. He was sent at his own request to Westminster School, and lodged and boarded with an elderly dame named Clapham, who lived in Little Dean's-yard. Lord Henry was distinguished for his attention and application to classical studies (he was not the next heir to the title). Cambridge and Oxford were then the hotbeds of Toryism, while Edinburgh was not only distinguished for the genius of its University professors, but the leading men in that intellectual society were enthusiastic Whigs. Lord Henry, accompanied by his schoolfellow, Alexander Baring, afterwards Lord Ashburton, and his private tutor at Westminster, the Rev. Mr. Debarry, went to Edinburgh, where he spent much of his time in the house of Dugald Stewart. Here he joined the "Speculative Society," and took a part in their weekly debates. From Edinburgh, Lord Henry went to Cambridge, where he entered himself of Trinity College. He made many friends at Cambridge by the gentleness of his manners, and the cultivation of his intellect, and has since declared that some of the happiest hours of his life were spent on the banks of the Cam. He remained at Cambridge until 1801, when he took the degree of M.A.

Lord Henry's education was carefully superintended by his father, who liked to be surrounded by men of genius and eminence. Mirabeau had been loud in his praises of Sir Samuel Romilly to the Marquis, and the latter accordingly sent for Sir Samuel to give him some information relative to his friend Dumont (the translator of Bentham), whom he had some thoughts of engaging to come to this country to undertake the education of his youngest son, Lord Henry. This was in 1785. After he left Cambridge, M. Dumont was engaged by the Marquis to accompany Lord Henry on a continental tour. This project was interrupted by a threatened renewal of hostilities with France, and Lord Henry made a hasty return to England. In the same year, 1801, he was nominated M.P. for the family borough of Calne. His maiden speech the year afterwards, during the Addington administration, was upon an Irish subject, and one with which, from the associations of his family he was well acquainted. It referred to the serious consequences with which the Irish community were threatened from the excessive issue of paper-money from private banks. A descendant of the great political economist, Sir W. Petty, spoke with authority on such a subject, and Lord Henry was held to have made a most promising *début* in the political arena.

Lord Henry's next great speech was on the occasion of the abuses of the naval department and the charges against Lord Melville; viz., that he had transferred large sums of public money into the hands of his own bankers, that he had left a deficiency of £60,000 in his accounts, and had allowed his paymaster, one Trotter, to use the public money for his own purposes, and in gambling speculations on the Stock Exchange. Lord Henry's speech against Lord Melville was forcible and effective. His style of speaking was now formed, and his periods at this early day have the precise *tourneure* by which they were distinguished in the full maturity of his powers. The division was a tie, but Mr. Whitbread's resolution was carried by the Speaker's vote. Lord Melville resigned office, and was struck from the list of Privy Councillors.

The death of Mr. Pitt, in January, 1806, caused a vacancy in the representation of the University of Cambridge. Two young men, who did not

dream that they were fated to spend thirty years of their lives in the closest political relations, presented themselves to fill the vacancy. Lord Byron was then at Cambridge, and in his "Granta" writes:—

"Then would I view each rival wight,  
Petty and Palmerston survey;  
Who canvass there with all their might,  
Against the next elective day."

Lord Palmerston was then a Tory, and the great prize of succeeding to Mr. Pitt's seat seemed of right to belong to him, rather than to the young Whig lord. But Lord Henry had been offered the post of Chancellor of the Exchequer by Mr. Fox, and he carried the election against the present Prime Minister by a majority of 331 against 128. Lord Henry, however, did not long enjoy this coveted distinction. At the next general election a few months afterwards, Lord Henry having in the meanwhile lost his office, and having distinguished himself by his advocacy of the removal of Catholic disabilities, he was rejected by the University. Lord Byron has a caustic allusion to the circumstance in his "Thoughts suggested by a College Examination:—

"With eager haste they court the lord of power,  
Whether 'tis Pitt or Petty rules the hour;"

and he adds in a note, "Since this was written, Lord Henry Petty has lost his place, and subsequently (I had almost said consequently) the honour of representing the University. A fact so glaring requires no comment."

The offer of the post of Chancellor of the Exchequer to Lord Henry Petty shows the confidence placed in his judgment and abilities by so shrewd and eminent a judge as Charles James Fox. Great expectations were indeed entertained of his future career, and some members of the Whig party were so enthusiastic in their laudation that they prophesied he would rival the oratorical fame of Pitt. But the appointment of a young and comparatively unknown statesman to a post which Pitt had just ceased to fill drew much ridicule upon the Ministry. Mr. Canning's wit was pressed into the service by the Opposition, and a piece entitled "Elijah's Mantle," and attributed to him, contained, among other scraps of "pleasant malice," the following passage on the new Chancellor of the Exchequer:—

"Illustrious Roscius of the State!  
New breeched and harnessed for debate,  
Thou wonder of the age.  
Petty or Betty art thou hight?  
By Granta sent to strut thy night  
On Stephen's bustling stage."

"Pitt's 'Chequer robe 'tis thine to wear;  
Take of his mantle, too, a share,  
'Twill aid thy Ways and Means.  
And shouldst thou Jack and his cabal  
Cry, 'Rob us the Exchequer, Hal!'  
'Twill charm away the fiends."

Mr. Gladstone said the other day, that the only security for a Chancellor of the Exchequer lay in his utter destitution—*Cantabit vacuus coram latrone viator*. It was as difficult for the House of Commons of that day to waylay and despoil Lord Henry of a surplus as "to deprive a Highlander of that particular garment which he does not wear," to borrow his successor's polite periphrasis. The enormous expenditure of the war rendered it impossible to diminish the taxation, and in the two budgets which Lord Henry introduced there was no scope for any biddings for popularity. His financial statements were dry matters of figures, which were discussed without eliciting much party feeling. In the debate on the provision for the family of Lord Nelson, Lord Henry made the apt quotation:—"At tu felix, Agricola, non tantum vita, sed etiam opportunitate mortis." This debate terminated in a grant of £5,000 per annum, permanently annexed to the earldom, and of £120,000 in money to the Nelson family.

The Whig Ministry did not long survive the death of Mr. Fox. Lord Grenville brought in a bill securing to all his Majesty's subjects in common the privilege of serving in the army and navy. It also proposed to allow Catholics and Dissenters to attain the highest rank in both services. George III. was distressed at these concessions to the Catholics, and told his friends that he had given his assent without understanding the bill. The Ministry withdrew the measure, but reserved their right to renew it whenever they thought proper. The King, on the other hand, demanded a written pledge that they would never agitate the subject again. They refused. Mr. Perceval sprang the rattle of "Church in danger," and Lord Grenville, Lord Howick, Lord Henry, and their colleagues, in March, 1807, retired before a "No Popery" administration. The transition from Pitt to a Government of peace, Catholic emancipation, and liberal improvement had been too sudden. The Whigs were right; but, as Fox said of Burke, they were "right too soon." A transition period was necessary to develop the power of the public press, and to ripen public opinion.

The University of Cambridge having rejected Lord Henry Petty, he accepted a seat for the notorious borough of Camelford, at the invitation of the Duke of Bedford. This pocket borough he continued to represent until his elevation to the Marquisate on the death of his half-brother in 1809. About a year before that event he married his cousin, Lady Louisa Strangeways, daughter to the Earl of Ilchester.

Lord Henry, henceforth Marquis of Lansdowne, now entered upon a long and dreary period of exclusion from office. He took part in the debates on the Regency Bill of 1811, and carried in committee, in the interest of the Prince of Wales, an amendment relative to appointments to the King's household during his illness. The readers of Sir Robert Peel's memoirs will remember that this was one of the precedents relied upon by the Peel Ministry as the justification of their intention to use their proxies in the House of Lords, on the report upon committee on the Corn Bill, in order to reverse any amendment made without proxies in the committee. Lord Liverpool proposed on the report to leave out all the words of Lord Lansdowne's amendment, and, proxies being used, the clause was restored to its original status. The attempt to alter the Corn Bill in committee was unsuccessful, but the precedent on the Regency Bill was so conclusive that Sir R. Peel's Cabinet had fully made up their minds to follow it.

The Marquis of Lansdowne's name is honourably identified with the cause of Roman Catholic Emancipation. Many vigorous, eloquent, and logical speeches has he delivered in favour of conceding equal civil rights without respect to religious opinions, and the removal of disabilities from his Catholic fellow-countrymen found in him a consistent and untiring advocate.

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The cause of neg philanthropy. Mi the slave trade, an colonies was passe 1814, when the tre slave abolition wer for the immediate Europe had been le the Duke of Glo Lord Grey, Lord petitions to both produced a signal e more than a mon sent to Parliame this time (June) in "18th, Sat. Was t Emperor, the King of it I dined with He is here as Gre wisely preferred di the splendid discon of royalty. Lord I of slave emancipa ber of a Cabinet pr British dominions. The amelioration the Marquis of Lan Parliamentary aid the Draconian seve bill repealing the



When Lord Lansdowne left office in 1807, the law precluded any Roman Catholic from sitting in either House of Parliament; from being a guardian of a Protestant; from presenting to an ecclesiastical living; from keeping arms for sale or otherwise; and, practically, from serving on juries or holding any office in the public service. After patiently waiting for many years, and finding that efforts like those of Mr. Canning in one House, and Lord Lansdowne in the other, led to no result, a feverish agitation and unnatural—almost incredible—excitement took possession of the Irish Roman Catholic population. An array of physical force was marshalled in defiance of law, and to the imminent danger of the public peace. In March, 1827, Canning advocated the Catholic claims for the last time in Parliament, and was again defeated. The Marquis of Lansdowne had given notice of a similar motion in the Upper House, but he withdrew it, avowing that he dared not brave the consequences of the disappointment of the Roman Catholic population of Ireland, if both Houses should show a majority against them.

Canning died, and the Duke of Wellington was sent for by George IV. to form a Cabinet in which Catholic Emancipation was not to be made a Cabinet question. The King "spoke highly of the Marquis of Lansdowne" to the great Duke in this interview. On the 12th of May, 1828, the House of Commons passed a resolution in favour of the Roman Catholic claims. On the 9th of June, the Marquis of Lansdowne moved that the Lords should concur in the resolution passed by the Commons. It appears by Sir R. Peel's autobiographical Memoir, that he made it a condition of remaining in office that the Duke should say nothing in debate that should preclude him from settling the Catholic question during the recess. The Duke of Wellington and Lord Lyndhurst took part in the discussion; and although they did not concur in the resolution moved by the Marquis of Lansdowne (which was rejected in the Lords by a majority of 44), the general tenor of the debate, of their speeches in particular, and the construction put upon them by the noble Marquis, are cited with satisfaction by Sir R. Peel in his Memoir. The result of the Clare election decided Peel. He insisted on a measure for the settlement of the Roman Catholic claims being recommended in the King's speech, and threw up the representation of Oxford University. When Parliament met, the Marquis of Lansdowne expressed his thanks to "those wise and honest men who had made a sacrifice of their prejudices for the good of their country." He ably defended Sir R. Peel from the wild abuse of the anti-Catholic party, and said, "Since the infamous decree in favour of passive obedience and nonresistance, which was burned by the hands of the common hangman, the University of Oxford, if it should reject the right hon. gentleman, had done nothing so contemptible and disgraceful." The University, however, did reject Sir R. Peel. The Wellington Administration brought in the Catholic Relief Bill. During the interval between its introduction into the Lower House and its arrival in the Lords, the noble Marquis lost no opportunity of strenuously enforcing the arguments in favour of the Catholics. He showed that their education, intelligence, and wealth had increased in the same proportion as their numbers. He referred to the fact that early in his political life, owing to the opinions he entertained on this subject, he had the misfortune to lose the confidence of the University of Cambridge, which he had represented in Parliament. The Marquis added: "From the exertions of the two Houses of Parliament, I may safely expect the settlement of this great question by a measure which will give peace—or at least lay the foundations of peace—where there has hitherto been strife; which will give strength where there has hitherto been weakness; which will establish harmony, concord, tolerance, and forbearance in the place of intolerance, jealousy, and suspicion."

When the bill came before their lordships it was supported by Lord Lansdowne with his usual ability, and he heartily thanked the Government and the Sovereign for a measure in which he only saw security to the State, and which he fondly hoped would permanently unite to us six millions of people. On the third reading the noble Marquis took leave of claims, the justice of which he had been the first to admit and the foremost to advocate, in the following words:—"The fortunes of the sister country are," he said, "now to be surrounded with brighter hues and hopes than have hitherto attended them. We are now no longer to govern Ireland by civil as well as military garrisons. In spite of all predictions to the contrary, I maintain that this measure affords the best grounds of permanent prosperity, as well as the most efficacious means of resistance—if resistance should unhappily be required—against attempts to invade the Church or State."

The cause of negro slavery had irresistibly appealed to his benevolence and philanthropy. Mr. Fox's ardent wish was to be the instrument of abolishing the slave trade, and his bill for abolishing the slave trade with any foreign colonies was passed while the Marquis was Chancellor of the Exchequer. In 1814, when the treaty of peace with France was published, the friends of slave abolition were cruelly disappointed that so favourable an opportunity for the immediate and total abolition of the slave trade by all the Powers of Europe had been lost. A public meeting was called at Freemasons' Hall, the Duke of Gloucester in the chair, when speeches were made by Lord Grey, Lord Lansdowne, Lord Holland, Wilberforce, &c., and petitions to both Houses of Parliament determined upon. This meeting produced a signal effect. The great towns followed the example, and in little more than a month 800 petitions, signed by 750,000 persons, were presented to Parliament against the slave trade. The allied sovereigns were at this time (June) in London. Sir S. Romilly has a memorandum in his diary. "18th, Sat. Was the grand dinner given at Guildhall to the Regent, the Emperor, the King of Prussia, &c. I was invited, but did not go. Instead of it I dined with Alexander Humboldt, the traveller, at Lansdowne House. He is here as Great Chamberlain of the King of Prussia." The Marquis wisely preferred dining with the author of "Cosmos" and a select party to the splendid discomfort of a civic banquet, even when graced by the presence of royalty. Lord Lansdowne's active and self-denying labours in the cause of slave emancipation were at length rewarded by finding himself a member of a Cabinet prepared to abolish the crying iniquity of slavery in the British dominions.

The amelioration of the Criminal Law was another cherished object with the Marquis of Lansdowne. Sir S. Romilly's diary abounds in notices of the Parliamentary aid he thus received in his legislative attempts to mitigate the Draconian severity of our law. On the 30th of May, 1810, Sir Samuel's bill repealing the punishment of death for shoplifting came on for a second

reading in the House of Lords. Among the majority which threw out the bill were seven prelates:—the Archbishop of Canterbury, the Bishops of London, Salisbury, Ely, Hereford, Chester, and an Irish bishop. Recollecting the mild doctrines of their religion, it is difficult to imagine these prelates coming down to the House to vote, as they did, that transportation for life was not a sufficiently severe punishment for pilfering what was of 5s. value, and that nothing but the blood of the offender could satisfy the majesty of the law. Lord Lansdowne was one of those who spoke for the bill. He also supported a similar bill in 1813, which was likewise thrown out on a second reading. Not a single bishop voted in favour of this bill, while five prelates opposed it. In 1816 Romilly's bill was again thrown out, on which occasion a protest, on the rejection of the bill, signed by Lord Holland and the Marquis of Lansdowne, as well as by the Dukes of Sussex and Gloucester, was entered upon the journals of the House of Lords.

During these long years of exclusion from office, the Marquis of Lansdowne made Lansdowne House and Bowood the resort of the most distinguished foreigners who visited this country. In 1813, Sir Samuel Romilly, after a devout aspiration that he may "pass other vacations as pleasantly as this," mentions the names of some of the visitors whom he encountered during a ten days' sojourn at Bowood. There were Madame de Staël, her son and daughter, the Count Palmella, Sir James Mackintosh, Rogers (the poet), M. Dumont, &c. In 1817, Sir S. Romilly and Lady Romilly again enjoyed the hospitalities of Bowood. On this occasion he says:—"The amiable disposition of Lord and Lady Lansdowne always renders this place delightful to their guests. To me there is always added, when I am at Bowood, a thousand pleasing recollections of past times; of the happy days I have spent, of the various society of distinguished persons I have enjoyed, of the friendships I have formed here." Bowood, too, had a special charm for Romilly, for here, in 1796, he first saw and became known to Lady Romilly,—"the most beautiful and accomplished creature that ever blessed the sight and understanding of man." Thomas Moore, the poet, passed his later years at Sloperton, near Bowood, where he was a frequent guest. At his mansion in Berkeley-square the Marquis has one of the finest collections of ancient marbles in this metropolis. He also possesses the "Venus" of Canova, one of the most esteemed productions of modern art. The ceilings are decorated by the pencil of Cipriani, and the collection of paintings contains some *chefs-d'œuvre* of ancient and modern art.

We now retrace our steps, in order to give an outline of the Marquis's second official career. When Mr. Canning received the King's commands to form an Administration, seven of the Ministry of Lord Liverpool resigned, and a Cabinet was formed of the more moderate and liberal Tories and three or four Whigs. Lord Lansdowne at first hesitated to serve under Mr. Canning, and the negotiation furnished ample matter for the discussions of the press. He objected to joining a Cabinet divided on the measure of Catholic Emancipation. But Mr. Canning had raised great hopes that, when he was delivered from the dominance of the Eldon party in the Cabinet, he would range himself on the side of rational freedom, and Lord Lansdowne's acceptance of the office of Home Secretary gave greater satisfaction to the public than Earl Grey's unsparing strictures on Mr. Canning's past career, which were severely felt by that statesman. He only held the seals of the Home Office from August to December, 1827. Mr. Canning's death destroyed the cohesion of the Ministry, and Lord Goderich's Administration, which succeeded, fell to pieces before the meeting of Parliament.

The Marquis of Lansdowne was, of course, a member of Earl Grey's Cabinet, and held office as President of the Council from November, 1830, to November, 1834. After the downfall of the Peel Government in April, 1835, the Marquis returned to his post, and was Lord President until September, 1841, when Sir R. Peel again came in. After the Corn Law Abolition Bill passed, the Whigs had another lease of office, and Lord Lansdowne was again President of the Council from July, 1846, to February, 1852. During this period he did more to advance the cause of National Education than any former Minister of the Crown, and in conjunction with Lord John Russell, founded the present system of public grants for the erection of school-houses, the management of schools, and the payment of pupil-teachers. In 1847, some amendments were made in the system, and in laying the minutes of the Privy Council before the House of Lords, the Marquis of Lansdowne said:—"I feel that everything the Government can do must fall infinitely short of that which ought to be included in a general plan of improving the state and education of the people,—far short of what ought to be done for the great mass of my fellow countrymen, whose scenes of unceasing toil place them far away from those elements of thought and means of intellectual culture upon which so much of their morality and happiness depends. It falls, indeed, my lords, so far short of what it ought to be, that I should almost despair of ultimate success, if from experience and observation I had not seen the zeal on the subject of education which pervades all denominations of men in this country." The noble Marquis may well be proud of the dimensions attained by the system he inaugurated, and of the happy results which, with certain admitted and almost inevitable drawbacks, it has achieved.

The Marquis, of course, took an influential share in the councils of the Whig Ministries of Earl Grey, Viscount Melbourne, and Lord J. Russell, and distinguished himself in the debates upon all the great questions of the day. It was something to take a part in the long list of great measures beginning with the Reform Bill of 1832, and including the reform of the Irish Church, the abolition of slavery in the English colonies, the opening of the trade with China, the reform of the Poor Laws, the opening of municipal corporations in England and Ireland, the commutation of tithes in England and Ireland, the amendment and amelioration of the criminal law, national education in Ireland and England, University Reform, &c. This long and honourable ministerial career came nominally to a close on that occasion, when the Marquis of Lansdowne, who had been the leader of Lord J. Russell's Ministry in the House of Lords, after announcing the retirement of the Government, on the 23rd of February, 1852, took his leave of official life in a speech which made a profound impression upon those who heard it, and a passage or two from which cannot be omitted from this sketch:—

"Considering, my lords, the position in which I feel myself to stand, it is most improbable—I ought to add a stronger word—that I shall again, under any circumstances, address your lordships from this bench. Although I shall feel it



to be my duty, as long as I have life and health, to attend the proceedings of this House, I think the time has arrived when I may reasonably dispense with a constant, or, if I may use the expression, a compulsory attendance upon the proceedings of this House. With that feeling I cannot sit down on this occasion without, in the first place, thanking all my noble friends whom I see around me, both personal and political, for the warmth and amity of that support which from them I have constantly experienced. But, my lords, I must also add that I shall quit this place deeply indebted to the House at large—to the majority, indeed, I will say to all the noble lords opposite—for the invariable kindness, courtesy, and forbearance which each and every of them have displayed towards me. It has been my lot, and I hope it will always continue to be my lot, to see observed in the proceedings of this House that absence of all violence of temper, that absence of all acrimony of feeling, which I am sure is essential to the dignity of your lordships' House. If I have in any degree assisted to maintain it, it will be a source of constant satisfaction, convinced as I am that it is by observing that course your lordships will best maintain that authority which you derive from its constitution—an authority which it ought to be the wish of all the sane part of the community you should continue to enjoy. I say of the sane part of the community, because all that portion of the community have had occasion, within the last few years, to see that there is no country, with institutions similar to those which give your lordships a place here, where those institutions have been hastily abolished in which it has not been found necessary to reconstruct them, and in which it has not been, at the same time, found that it is much more easy to destroy than to create."

The Earl of Derby was not in his place when the Marquis took this dignified farewell of official life; but the Earl of Malmesbury, the new Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, speaking for the noble Marquis's political opponents, expressed a hope that the words their lordships had just heard, would be long remembered as coming from "the highest authority in that House, as well by experience, as by dignity of bearing, and courtesy of manner." He added a wish that the noble Marquis would long be able to afford their lordships the benefit of his advice, and the valuable example of his virtues and his eloquence.

When the Derby Ministry fell, her Majesty sent to the Marquis of Lansdowne to advise her, as the Queen had sent on a similar occasion to consult the Great Duke, now sleeping his last sleep under the dome of St. Paul's. At the earnest wish of the Earl of Aberdeen, who was commissioned to form a Government, the Marquis consented to hold a seat in his Cabinet without office, and this somewhat anomalous dignity he held from 1852 to 1858, first under the Aberdeen Ministry, and then under the administration of Lord Palmerston.

The Marquis of Lansdowne is somewhat under the middle height. When he addressed the House, his dignified bearing, his friendly and intelligent expression of countenance, and an exquisite urbanity and affability of manner, strongly prepossessed his hearers in his favour. His sentences were longer, more ornate, and more involved, than altogether comports with the slipshod and conventional style of modern parliamentary oratory. Everything he said denoted a cultivated mind; and while his persuasive delivery captivated the ear, his elaborate and eloquent arguments not less charmed the understanding of his audience.

The Marquis received the Garter in 1836; he is a governor of the Charter-house, and Lord-Lieutenant of Wiltshire. He had two sons—the Earl of Kerry, who died in 1836; and his second son, the Earl of Shelburne, the heir to his title and estates, who was summoned to the Upper House, in 1856, in his father's barony of Wycombe. The Earl of Shelburne has been a Lord of the Treasury, and was Under-Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, under Lord Palmerston, from June, 1856, to March, 1858.

## Reviews of Books.

### SIR PHILIP SIDNEY.\*

SIR PHILIP SIDNEY is undoubtedly the most striking character of an age which, more than any other, has coloured our national history with a romantic hue. "The president," as Spenser called him, "of nobleness and chivalry," the darling as much of his own as of after times, great alike in arms, in letters, in diplomacy, a tender friend, a charming companion,—he seems almost to belong more to the domain of imaginative poetry than to actual historical narrative. Contemporary documents, however, though not as plentiful as might be wished, suffice to assure us that the real Sir Philip Sidney was scarcely flattered in the portraits by which posterity judges him; and Mr. Fox Bourne's elegant and discriminating biography brings into juxtaposition many details which before threw no light upon his character, and enables us to understand more fully the feelings of admiration which he inspired, and the fervent language in which his praises have been sung. The author has evidently written with the deepest interest and sympathy for his subject, and the vividness of his own conceptions about it has, we think, betrayed him into a somewhat too daring employment of inference or conjecture, and an occasional forgetfulness of the immense difference between that which, according to all laws of historical probability, ought to have occurred, and that which actually did occur. The whole work, however, bears the marks of diligent and careful research, and of a sincere desire to ascertain and tell the truth; and it is easy to forgive a painstaking and enthusiastic artist for being sometimes too sedulously attentive to picturesque effect.

By his parentage on either side Sir Philip Sidney possessed an hereditary claim to political distinction. Twelve generations back his maternal ancestor, Robert de l'Isle, had joined the discontented barons against King John, and been deprived of his lands until the accession of Henry III. Under Edward III., Gerard de l'Isle had an honourable share in the battle of Cressy; and by successive marriages the family became united with the Berkeleys, Warwicks, Talbots, and Dudleys. Sir Philip's mother was sister to Lord Guildford Dudley, whose execution took place but a few months before Sir Philip's birth. His father, Sir Henry Sidney, was repeatedly employed as Lord Deputy in Ireland and Wales, and in the former country was successful, notwithstanding the scanty succours and ill-concealed dislike of Queen

Elizabeth, in crushing a series of dangerous rebellions. A letter written by him to his son at school leaves us with a strong impression of a dignified and sensible character. "Be modest," he says, amongst other pieces of advice, "in each assembly, and rather be rebuked of light fellows for maidenlike shamedness, than of your sad friends for pert boldness. Think upon every word that you will speak before you utter it, and remember how nature hath ramparted up, as it were, the tongue with teeth, lip, yea, and hair without the lips, and all betokening reins or bridles for the loose use of that member. Above all, tell no untruth, no, not in trifles; the custom of it is naughty. Well, my little Philip, this is enough for me, and too much, I fear, for you." Shortly afterwards, in 1568, Philip, still a mere boy, was entered as a student at Christ Church, Oxford. During his residence here he formed acquaintances which were to last his lifetime. Fulke Greville was of an ancient Warwickshire family, and a distant relation of the Sidneys. Hakluyt, the traveller and historian of travels, and Camden, the antiquarian, were among his contemporaries. He seems to have worked diligently, and left the place in his eighteenth year, "possessed," so say his biographers, "of every kind of knowledge." Public matters were just then sufficiently exciting to engross his attention. The political horizon both of Scotland and of Ireland was dark and lowering. The Queen's marriage, moreover, with the Duc d'Alençon, younger brother of Charles IX., was in process of negotiation, and young Sidney, through the influence of his uncle, the Earl of Leicester, was permitted to accompany the embassy which was sent to Paris, under Lord Lincoln, to bring the matter to a close. Lord Lincoln soon returned with promising answers from the Duke and the Queen-mother Catherine, but Sidney remained at Paris, and became intimate with Walsingham, then resident ambassador. Paris was a blaze of festivities, and the old rancours of Catholics and Huguenots seemed for ever extinguished; Henry of Navarre had come to claim the marriage which was to symbolize eternal reconciliation; all the principal Huguenot leaders were in attendance upon him; one piece of revelry succeeded to another, till the Queen's machinations were complete, and the deceitful peace was suddenly ended in the horrors of St. Bartholomew's Day. This event, no doubt, coloured the whole of Sidney's subsequent career, and led him to adopt with such strenuous decision the Protestant interests which he never throughout his life abandoned. A friendship which he soon afterwards formed at Frankfort still more strengthened his decision. Hubert Languet was among the best-informed and most thoughtful of the anti-Catholic party. Originally a law professor at Padua, he had become devoted to Melancthon, had established communications with all the leading Protestants, and was now serving at Frankfort as Secret Minister to the Elector of Saxony. The affection which he came to entertain for the young Englishman was almost amusingly romantic, but it never wavered till his death, and his wise and courageous letters must be considered as among the most important political instruction which Sidney ever received. A long tour in Germany and Italy followed, and the high-born young Englishman received a hospitable welcome to the splendours and luxuries of which Venice was at this time the home. Haughty senators, illustrious artists, rich merchants entertained him, but were a poor substitute for the companionship of his friend. "I would rather," he writes, "have one quiet chat with you, my dear Languet, than enjoy the magnificent magnificences of all these magnificoes." Languet continued to advise him, and especially cautioned him against a visit to Rome. The blood of the sturdy Huguenot ran cold at the mere idea of the dangerous fascinations which would have to be there encountered, and he wrote in a melancholy strain to urge his return to Vienna: "If any mischance befell you I should be the most wretched man in the world. There is nothing to give me the least pleasure save our friendship and the hope I have of your manhood. The ruin of my native land, and the calamities which have recently overtaken all my friends, make life a great deal worse to me than death."

Languet might well be desponding. In 1574 the disastrous defeat of Prince Lewis of Nassau seemed to dash the last hopes of the Protestants to the ground, and, except in the Netherlands, princes and people alike seemed verging to the indifference of despair. Before winter, however, Sidney joined Languet at Vienna, and seems to have devoted his leisure to the accomplishments which could be there best acquired. An Italian, Pugliano, instructed him in horsemanship, and spared no pains to dignify his art: "Soldiers," he declared, "were the noblest estate of mankind, and horsemen the noblest of soldiers." "He said they were the masters of war and ornaments of peace, speedy goers and strong abiders, triumphers both in camps and courts; nay, to so unbelievably a point he proceeded, as that no earthly thing bred such wonder to a prince as to be a good horseman: skill in government was a pedantry in comparison." Sidney returned to England in the summer of 1575, and found the Earl of Leicester high in court favour, and anxious to advance the interests of his nephew. The Queen had consented to visit him at Kenilworth, and Sidney was naturally a partaker in the splendid festivities to which the occasion gave rise. A long series of pageants, masques, and processions, was followed by the less dignified but not less interesting spectacle of a bear-bait. The Queen was much edified by the "plucking and hugging, scratching and biting, by plain tooth and nail, on one side and the other," which naturally ensued. "It was a sport very pleasant of these beasts to see the bear with his pink eyes leaping after his enemies' approach; and how, if he were once taken there, with what shift, with biting, clawing, and roaring, he would work to wrench himself from them; and when he was loose, to shake his ears twice or thrice with the blood and slaver about his physiognomy, was matter of a goodly relief!" Sidney followed the Queen to Chartley Castle, the residence of Lady Essex, and here encountered the woman who was destined to exercise so unfortunate an influence upon his after life; Penelope Devereux was still a child, but still old enough to fascinate; and her charms and the prevailing gaieties, betrayed her admirer into a neglect of his friend Languet, who writes feelingly to complain of his silence, and to warn him against temptation. "My darling Sidney, you must not forget the motto, 'Vitanda est improba Siren Desidia.' Meantime the young courtier rose rapidly in the Queen's esteem, and when Lord Essex returned from Ireland to claim the reward of his services in that island, Sidney at once became his companion and ally. Essex was at length created Earl Marshal, but had hardly assumed his dignity, when he was overtaken by a mortal sickness; Sidney hurried to join him, but found his friend already dead; he had waited anxiously for his arrival, and uttered a

\* A Memoir of Sir Philip Sidney. By H. R. Fox Bourne. Chapman & Hall. 1862.

"LAST POEMS  
before Congress,  
\* Last Poems. B



young man's prophecy as to the young courtier's future greatness. In 1577, Sidney received his first official employment in an embassy of congratulation to the new Emperor of Germany, Rodolph II. The late Emperor had offered a steady resistance to Spanish aggression, and had governed with a large-minded toleration of dissent; Rodolph had been but too well trained by a fanatical mother, and started at once on a career of persecution. Moreover, the Elector Palatine had died almost at the same time, and his two sons, Lewis and John Casimir, were respectively bent upon supporting the interests of Lutheranism and Calvinism, and so threatened a disastrous split in the Protestant force. Sidney was charged to examine the tendencies of the German princes, and solemnly warned the Elector and his brother of the absolute necessity for united action; he in vain endeavoured to persuade Rodolph to the formation of a general league against Spain, and startled the Imperial Court from its accustomed formality by an emphatic announcement of impending danger. Rodolph gave a dubious answer, and proved himself, according to Sidney's judgment, "a treacherous Jesuit bound and extremely Spaniolated man." On his return, the ambassador visited Don John, of Austria, the famous conqueror of Lepanto, and now Governor-General of the Spanish Netherlands. The Prince at first was haughty, but was soon won to respect and affability by Sidney's noble bearing. Subsequently he had an interview with the Prince of Orange, who was similarly impressed, and in 1577, he returned to London, to find his reputation as a statesman established, and his position at court still further ennobled by the marriage of his sister to the Earl of Pembroke. His thoughts now were occupied in fighting his father's battles at court, and by schemes for American exploration, which Frobisher's partial successes had at this time rendered fashionable. Sidney, however, was reserved for more valuable work than the discovery of a Transatlantic El-Dorado: the world of letters was in ferment; the golden age of English literature was just dawning; and though language was often defaced by a stilted exaggeration and foolish parade of learning, a race of great writers was springing up, and their society naturally fired Sidney with a literary ambition. With Spenser, especially, he was intimate; and the two friends probably exercised a mutual influence upon each other's productions. A little party formed themselves into a poetical Areopagus, and endeavoured to lay down canons of rhythmical composition. The hexameter and Sapphic were the metres which they endeavoured, happily without success, to introduce; Sidney himself wrote in defiance of his companions, who expostulated against an unclassical measure, and "bade him farewell till God or some good angel put him in a better mind." Before long Sidney's popularity was endangered. The Queen had renewed negotiations for a marriage with the French King's brother; Oxford abetted her resolution with unprincipled alacrity, and Sidney's firm opposition embroiled him both with the court favourite and with his royal mistress. His father, too, was constantly receiving rebukes from court, and was known to have active enemies about the Queen. Sidney accordingly quitted court for a while, and lived in retirement with his sister. Languet's remonstrances, however, soon stirred him into activity, and the Queen's improved temper seemed to favour his return to court. But his position was not secure in the eyes of the world, and Lord Huntingdon, the guardian of Penelope Devereux, by no means approved of him as a suitor for his ward. She was forced into a marriage with Lord Robert Rich, a vulgar and brutal man; and Sidney, in despair, gave way to the weakness which is the single stain upon an otherwise spotless character. "All love," he writes,

"is dead, infected  
With plague of deep disdain;  
Worth as worth nought rejected,  
And Faith fair scorn doth gain."

As has so often before and since proved the case, a cruel marriage entailed its own defeat, and Sidney, cheated of his mistress's lawful love, wandered for a while into pleasures, which led him on his death-bed to exclaim, in the bitterness of self-reproach, "All things in my former life have been vain, vain, vain!" His subsequent marriage to the daughter of Sir Francis Walsingham may be taken, however, as the best evidence that his deflection from rigid morality was transient, and that an attachment which had ceased to be pure was before long entirely extinguished.

We cannot follow Mr. Fox Bourne into his interesting account of Sidney's writings, or of his labours in several successive Parliaments. The last episode of his life is, perhaps, the most touching, and has tended, no doubt, to throw a halo of poetry around his whole career. In 1585 the smouldering flame of war broke into a blaze. France, Spain, and Rome, were leagued against the liberties of mankind, and England could no longer refrain from drawing the sword and striking a blow for those who shared her political and religious sympathies. Sidney was appointed Governor of Flushing, and by holding the entrance of the Scheldt, cut off supplies from Antwerp, Brussels, and Ghent. His forces were very inadequate and the position became critical: careful measures of self-protection had to be interrupted by active service in the field. At last, before the walls of Zutphen he received the wound which cost him his life. "I would you had stood by," said Leicester, "to hear his most loyal speeches to her Majesty, his constant mind to the cause, his loving care of me, and his most resolute determination for death." A long period of suffering ensued, and all the magnanimity and gentleness of his nature disclosed itself. "Mi Wier," he wrote to his friend John Wier, physician to the Duke of Cleves, "veni, veni; de vitâ periclitator et te cupio; nec vivus nec mortuus ero ingratus; plura non possum." At last, on the 17th of October, he died. Amongst a host of eulogists his friend Fulke Greville speaks, perhaps, with the most dignified regret. "Indeed," he says, "he was the true model of worth; a man fit for conquest, plantation, reformation, or what action soever is the greatest and grandest among men; withal such a lover of mankind and goodness that whatsoever had any real parts found in him comfort, protection, and participation to the uttermost of his power. . . . Neither was this in him a private but a public affection; his chief aim being not friends, wife, children, and himself, but above all things the honour of his Maker, and the service of his prince and country."

#### LAST POEMS.\*

"LAST POEMS" will correct the unpleasant impression left by "Poems before Congress," but will not much add to Mrs. Browning's reputation.

\* Last Poems. By Elizabeth Barrett Browning. London: Chapman & Hall, 1862.

The larger part is a collection of fugitive pieces, to which a character is given by some which are the last expression of an undying devotion to the cause of Italian liberty. The first poem, "Little Mattie," has appeared before, and is well known. It is one of the best, because it is one of the simplest. The fifth stanza is a good specimen of Mrs. Browning's power of painting childhood:—

"'Twas a green and easy world  
As she took it; room to play  
(Though one's hair might get uncured,  
At the far end of the day).  
What she suffered she shook off  
In the sunshine; what she sinned

She could pray on high enough  
To keep safe above the wind.  
If reproved by God or you,  
'Twas to better her, she knew;  
And if crossed, she gathered still  
'Twas to cross out something ill."

But the effect is marred by the moral of the whole, which is that whereas you had been accustomed to look down with a sweet scorn on your living child, your child now looks down with a grand contempt on you. This is a strange and exaggerated expression of that jealousy of lovers which regards with suspicion any alteration that might tend to estrange from them the object of their love. The same idea occurs in "Died," p. 69, but is there applied to a less selfish moral. "Lord Walter's Wife" fails to interest us, because it is a profoundly impossible scene, and the conversation is absurd and sometimes almost coarse. But it is very successful as a specimen of dactylic verse, a metre in various forms of which many of these poems are written, and which, in Mrs. Browning's hands, has gained both in vigour and melody. "Bianca among the Nightingales" is chiefly remarkable for one of those offensive passages which deface so many parts of this author's works:—

"She lied and stole,  
And spat into my love's pure pyx,  
The rank saliva of her soul."—P. 21.

"May's Love" and "Amy's Cruelty" are of a lighter kind in the book. Both are simply and naturally written. One is a lively protest of a lover against universal philanthropy on the part of a young lady; in the other a young lady excuses herself for not being in a hurry to give her lover the exclusive monopoly of her affections:—

"Unless he gives me all in change,  
I forfeit all things by him:  
The risk is terrible and strange,—  
I tremble, doubt,—deny him.

He's sweetest friend, or hardest foe,  
Best angel, or worst devil;  
I either hate, or—love him so,  
I can't be merely civil!"

After the weak and monotonous melancholy of "De Profundis," it is a great relief to come to the vigorous dactyls and trochees of "A Musical Instrument," better known under the title of the "Great God Pan." This is one of the few poems in which Mrs. Browning has succeeded in being pathetic without being sentimental. It is nearly as good in its way as Shelley's "Hymn to Pan," but the idea of the god is more coarse, and the versification less tender and musical. The best stanzas are these:—

"He tore out a reed, the great god Pan,  
From the deep cool bed of the river:  
The limpid water turbidly ran,  
And the broken lilies a-dying lay,  
And the dragon-fly had fled away,  
Ere he brought it out of the river.

Sweet, sweet, sweet, O Pan!  
Piercing sweet by the river!  
Blinding sweet, O great god Pan!  
The sun on the hill forgot to die,  
And the lilies revived, and the dragon-fly  
Came back to dream on the river.

He cut it short, did the great god Pan,  
(How tall it stood in the river!)  
Then drew the pith, like the heart of a man,  
Steadily from the outside ring,  
And notched the poor dry empty thing  
In holes as he sat by the river.

Yet half a beast is the great god Pan,  
To laugh as he sits by the river,  
Making a poet out of a man:  
The true gods sigh for the cost and pain,—  
For the reed which grows never more again,  
As a reed with the reeds in the river."

The first of the poems about Italy is a lamentation over the peace of Villafranca. For a moment Mrs. Browning's faith in Louis Napoleon seems to be shaken, but a few pages later she reiterates her peculiar doctrine that where the result is very good, the means cannot have been bad:—

"Suppose  
Some hell-brood in Eden's sweet greenery,  
Convoked for creating—arose!  
Would it suit the infernal machinery?"—P. 66.

A strange doctrine, and one the converse of which it would be inconvenient to apply to patriots who have failed. "The Sword of Castruccio Castracani" breathes some of the spirit of the old drinking-song which sang of Harmodius and Aristogeiton. Of the remaining poems, "The forced Recruit" and "Mother and Poet" are the best. The first of these and the incident on which it is founded are well known. The second is perhaps the best in the book. The two sons of Laura Savio, a poetess and patriot, were killed at Ancona and Gaeta:—

"Dead! One of them shot by the sea in the east,  
And one of them shot in the west by the sea.  
Dead! both my boys! When you sit at the feast,  
And are wanting a great song for Italy free,  
Let none look at me!"

Then was triumph at Turin: 'Ancona was free!'  
And some one came out of the cheers in the street,  
With a face pale as stone, to say something to me.  
My Guido was dead! I fell down at his feet,  
While they cheered in the street.

I bore it; friends soothed me; my grief looked sublime  
As the ransom of Italy. One boy remained  
To be leant on and walked with, recalling the time  
When the first grew immortal, while both of us strained  
To the height he had gained.

My Nanni would add, he was safe, and aware  
Of a presence that turned off the balls,—was imprest  
It was Guido himself, who knew what I could bear,  
And how 'twas impossible, quite dispossessed,  
To live on for the rest."

On which, without pause, up the telegraph-line  
Swept smoothly the next news from Gaeta:—'Shot.'  
Tell his mother: 'Ah, ah, 'his, 'their' mother,—not 'mine.'  
No voice says 'My mother' again to me. What!  
You think Guido forgot?"

Both boys dead? But that's out of nature. We all  
Have been patriots, yet each house must always keep one.  
'Twere imbecile, hewing out roads to a wall;  
And, when Italy's made, for what end is it done  
If we have not a son?"

The contrast of patriotic triumph and private grief was never more pathetically painted; the self-sacrifice of the Spartan mother without the previous discipline which had taught her to subordinate personal love to state ends.



The last part of the book consists of "Paraphrases," with one exception, much earlier in date than the other poems. These pieces are called paraphrases, apparently to disarm criticism about their want of closeness to the originals. They are, however, really translations, and as such they are good, though wanting in simplicity, while as paraphrases they are failures. The use of a paraphrase is either merely to clear up obscurities, or to produce a work of art which shall give pleasure like that given by the original, in default of the possibility of giving pleasure by an exact reproduction. In return for its exemption from the difficulties of accurate translation, it undertakes to transmute into a new whole and one perfect in language and melody. In this Mrs. Browning has failed. Her verses are often unrhymical and awkwardly broken up. This will appear by a comparison of her version of the parting of Hector from Andromache, with the familiar lines of Pope:—

"The babe clung crying to his nurse's breast,  
Scared at the dazzling helm, and nodding crest.  
With secret pleasure each fond parent smiled,  
And Hector hastened to relieve his child,  
The glittering terrors from his brow unbound,  
And placed the beaming helmet on the ground."

Mrs. Browning has,—

"The boy clung back, and shunned his father's face,  
And feared the glittering brass and waving hair  
Of the high helmet, nodding horror down.  
The father smiled, the mother could not choose  
But smile too. Then he lifted from his brow  
The helm, and set it on the ground to shine."—P. 131.

Pope's lines are more modern in tone, but they are greatly superior in ease and elegance.

It is not by these poems that Mrs. Browning's reputation will stand or fall. Nor would it be fair, in an estimate of her rank as a poet, to dwell much on those earliest efforts in which she ought to have been learning the limits of her powers. The childhood of men of genius is seldom particularly wise, but they are generally soon disciplined by contact with the world. Mrs. Browning, unfortunately for herself and us, never learnt prudence. Untaught by the experience of the "Essay on Mind," and the "Seraphim," she again trod with angels in the "Drama of Exile." This is a poem of the spasmodic order, in which Lucifer and Gabriel, angels and Eden spirits, hold colloquies with Adam and Eve outside the gate of Paradise. The result is, besides a great deal of profanity and questionable divinity, often such as might be expected to occur now and then from the frequently random shuffling of the types of a number of high-sounding words. This is the more to be regretted because in the intervals of pages which transcend the bounds not only of space and time but of sense and reason, there are passages of exquisite beauty and melody, and the same volumes contain many short poems, such as the "Rhapsody of Life's Progress" and the "Rhyme of the Duchess May," unequal, indeed, in execution, and sometimes marred by affectation, but instinct with natural grace. Here is a fine description of childhood from the "Rhapsody":—

"Then all things look strange in the pure golden ether;  
We walk through the gardens with hands linked together,  
And the lilies look large as the trees;  
And as loud as the birds, sing the bloom-loving bees,—  
And the birds sing like angels, so mystical fine;  
And the cedars are brushing the archangel's feet;  
And time is eternity,—love is divine,  
And the world is complete!"

"Casa Guidi Windows" appeared in 1851. It is a kind of political love-song, written at two periods, one of hope, the other of despondence after the abortive revolution at Florence in 1849. In the first, even the Pope and the Grand Duke are toned down for a time almost to the likeness of ordinary men; but in the second, the adverse event has changed them into renegades and monsters for whom no names are too hard. We can hardly understand the fury of Mrs. Browning's Italianized feelings; probably they are pitched too high for the comprehension even of Italians themselves. But there are many passages of eloquent political passion, and the description of the expulsion and return of the Grand Duke are as fine as anything in her poems.

But it is in "Aurora Leigh" that both her faults and merits reach their highest point. This she styles "the most mature of my works, and the one into which my highest convictions upon Life and Art have entered." Seldom has any poem met with such various criticisms. One critic has called it the greatest poem of the century, another a splendid failure in an impossible attempt; others have given it harder names. This most original of works beggars description. It is not exactly a novel, for it is written in metre, and has few incidents and hardly any delineation of manners. It is not an epic, for it consists chiefly of views. It is not a drama, for much of it is descriptive. It is a sort of medley of all three. Perhaps it may be classed in a species by itself as an autobiographical novelette with a purpose, written partly in an epic, partly in a dramatic form. It is a most provoking mixture of faults and beauties. As a novel it is in every way bad. The main incident is offensive, besides being impossible. The heroine is changed in the middle, the whole interest being centred, for four books, in Marian Erle. The two chief characters would seem insufferable prigs in real life, and their conversations are absurdly stilted and unnatural. The whole book is disfigured by the continual presence of one unpleasant "I," who is glorified throughout and never makes a mistake except in having supposed herself indifferent to Romney Leigh, and who leads all the conversations, so that Romney and others may glorify her. Romney, in the end, is blinded, without any other apparent object than that she may display her magnanimity in marrying him. Finally, the description of their meeting, at the close of the book, is both poor and stilted. But if the characters are such as could not be tolerated in a novel which claimed to represent real life, are they better as poetical creations? They are worse. Mrs. Browning's labours have been intentionally those of the spider rather than those of the bee. From the beginning her professed object in all her poetry has been to give complete expression to her own being, to deliver the message with which she is charged from the Infinite. One consequence of this is that almost all her characters are projections of her own consciousness. She has not created a single natural or life-like character. Her personages are charged with a mission, which they shriek forth, and then die out of memory. None of them are informed with that "right Promethean fire" which makes poetical creations

living beings whom we know and see and should recognize if we met them. The only exception to this is the admirable character of the aunt; but she belongs rather to the novel than to the poem, and is not of a high order. Marian Erle is indeed a beautiful face, smiling through her tears—

"As if one held a light  
Across a waste of waters;"

—but she is nothing more.

It remains, then, to consider if the lesson taught, the views conveyed, are such as to make us pardon the imperfection of the vehicle. The great lesson seems to be this, so far as we can gather its drift, that Art is the great instrument by which the life of man is to be ennobled. But really the effect of Art, in any ordinary sense of the word, on the masses, is easily exaggerated. In any case, its effect depends on the individual, so that it cannot be prescribed wholesale. Vast numbers of the people cannot be reached by it at all, and a very large class is more "improved;" that is, stimulated and made uncomfortable, so as to wish to become better, by appeals exaggerated and coarse, and shocking to all artistic feeling. Only a limited class is capable of being much improved by Art, and it is questionable if even there the improvement directly extends to any other faculties than those intellectual ones which are immediately concerned. But the hopelessness of the cause matters little to this chivalrous writer; for, as she tells us,—

"The world's male chivalry has perished out,  
But women are knight-errants to the last."—P. 283.

A multitude of minor faults disfigure the whole poem. It is full of the most uncouth and affected conceits, and metaphors in the worst possible taste galvanized into extravagant and painfully-protracted vitality. In one place, streams bleat on in innocent repose; in another, shadows are unleashed down the wind. We find ourselves constantly on the borders of profanity and indelicacy, though the profanity often almost vanishes in the grotesqueness of the humour. Here is a specimen:—

"Here's God down on us! What are you about?"

The versification and diction are always vigorous, and often melodious; but what is to be said for lines which violate accent in this way?—

"Philosopher against philanthropist,  
Academician against poet, man  
Against woman, against the living, the dead,—  
Then home, with a bad headache and worse jest!"

—a very probable result. Or what excuse is there for such expressions as "a multiform" (p. 89); "irrepressive" for irrepressible (p. 120); "innumerable" for innumerable (p. 33)?

Yet, whilst the whole is glaringly bad, and destitute of nature and simplicity, and every page is studded with blemishes, there are many passages of high-souled thought, of graphic description, of tender pathos, and of exquisite melody. We recognize a genius so gifted, as might have produced an immortal poem but for its unhappy misdirection and want of care in the details. The seventh book is as fine in its way as anything in modern literature, especially the description of Marian's child (for Mrs. Browning, like the Brontës and George Sand, is great in child-painting), and that of the journey to Italy.

Her last work of any length is "Poems before Congress." Common language is too feeble for the enthusiasm with which she deifies the liberator of Italy, and her passion rises to such cloudy heights as this:—

"We stand to meet thee on these Alpine snows,  
And while the palpitating peaks break out  
Ecstatic from somnambular repose," &c.

Mrs. Browning is at least a good hater and a good lover; but her selection of an object for her homage is not to be justified by such arguments as that, if we would not regard history as a mere thimble-rig, we must recognise a direct Providence in the events of the last few years. Surely it is open to us to question the honesty of the instrument without having the charge of "a blank atheism" hurled at our heads. The versification of "Poems before Congress" recalls that of the lyrical passages in "Maud;" but it is inferior in melody, and the metrical position of the words is constantly incompatible with their natural accentuation.

The secret of Mrs. Browning's failure is in this—that she drew too little from observation and knowledge, too much from the depths of her own unique and passionate nature. All highly-wrought and ideal temperaments have a tendency to feed on themselves, to create the world *a priori*. Women in particular start at a disadvantage in this way. They are, for the most part, jealously shut out from the knowledge of things as they are; and, what is still more fatal, they are debarred from that free interchange of thought which is necessary to cast out their idols of the cave. In Mrs. Browning's case this defect was much aggravated by a life of sickness and seclusion. An apologist for her imperialism has claimed for her a deeper insight into the real right and wrong of events than is possessed by ordinary men, as the result of a cloister life kept aloof from the passions and interests of the moment, and judging all things by a standard of eternity. But the insight of a recluse is really of a very unpractical kind, and is of value only when confined to her own duties and feelings. Applied to the world without, it is worthless. St. Simeon Stylites, with his filmed and horny eyes, knew as little of what went on in the crowds below as they did of his conflicts with Abaddon and Asmodeus on the top of his pillar. In the preface to the volumes of poems which were published in 1844, Mrs. Browning tells us that so far she had done her work as the completest expression of her own being to which she could attain; and this ideal she seems to have followed throughout her life. But as she tells us in "Aurora Leigh":—

"Natural things  
And spiritual,—who separates those two  
In art, in morals, or the social drift,  
Tears up the bond of nature and brings death,  
Paints futile pictures, writes unreal verse."—P. 302.

Yet she understands, thinks, and creates entirely from the platform of her own isolated individuality. The result is a kind of strained originality, which has been the cause or occasion of all her defects. It is this which dictated her choice of subjects which interest only a small number of people. It is this which has made her characters mere unreal shades, which seem lost and out of place in the daylight of real life. It is this which has made her belie the promise of her youth. This kind of originality is apt to produce

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"Aurora Leigh," 1862.



much in early life, because it involves a certain unity and complete grasp. But it does not improve. The imagination, fed only on itself, becomes morbid. Another result of this over-wrought independence is her habitual violation of that reserve about delicate subjects, which is natural, though it has become conventionalized. Why do women of real power, like Mrs. Browning, Charlotte Brontë, George Eliot, generally write about things and in a way which shock common minds? They talk as if they had "sounded all the depths and shoals," and, in the excess of their reaction against prudery, they select for their art things which are present, indeed, in nature, but become obtrusive in their writings. One other result of the same fruitful parent of faults is the unintelligibility of many things in Mrs. Browning's poems. These *à priori* poets conceive pictures and scenes which other minds cannot appreciate, and further aggravate their obscurity by the practice of a kind of intellectual hieroglyphics or shorthand, using words according to their own personal associations to signify many things which they do not express. Indeed, it sometimes seems as if these writers, having conceived some unutterable beatific vision, and expressed it temporarily for themselves in their peculiar, abbreviated style, immediately, as it were, lose the key to their own puzzle, but yet print for us what not even they, the high priests of the mystery, can any longer understand. Such are some passages even in "Aurora Leigh," and many in the earlier poems. What is the meaning of

"Forms, spaces, motions wide,  
Of weak insensate things?"

This may be the tongue of angels, but who is to interpret to men? If Homer gives us the name by which Scamander or a hawk is called in the large utterance of the gods, he also vouchsafes a translation into the language of articulating men. But in Mrs. Browning the meaning of many passages, doubtless not nonsense to the author, is lost to us for want of the steps by which others lead their readers up to the thought; and remains an octave too high for our sense to appreciate.

Still, when all is said, there remains enough of genius and passion to place Mrs. Browning perhaps even in the first rank of poets. It is due to that which she has done well and to the poetical capacity which she has shown even in failure to believe that, under less unfavourable circumstances, she might have been inferior to none.

#### THE DRUSES AND THE MARONITES UNDER THE TURKISH RULE FROM 1840 TO 1860.\*

COLONEL CHURCHILL has published his fourth volume on Mount Lebanon. In it he devotes himself chiefly to describe the recent massacre of the Christians in the north of Syria, and to investigate the causes which led to them. No man had better opportunities of forming a correct judgment on this subject than Colonel Churchill. He has been resident in the Lebanon for the last twenty years, during which time the various causes that culminated in that extraordinary calamity have been accumulating and coming to a head. He has also, according to his own account, "availed himself of his ample opportunities to fathom the pervading mind of the two great sects into which the population of the Lebanon is divided." Still, with all his opportunities, Colonel Churchill has not written an altogether satisfactory book. In many points—in the historical sketch, for instance, of the Maronites and Druses—in the graphic accounts of the various battles—in the story of the magnanimity, and in the appreciation of the high character of Abd-el-Kader, Colonel Churchill's new volume is interesting in the highest degree. But in the general treatment of the subject there is an inadequacy and inconsistency that leaves an unsatisfactory impression on the mind. The author professes great impartiality, but he takes a partizan view of the case. He disavows in his preface any intention of vindicating or condemning either side; but in his conclusion he condemns wholesale. His intentions at starting are those of an unbiassed judge, but he carries them out with the one-sided acrimony of an advocate.

The chief object of Colonel Churchill's aversion is the Government of the Porte, which he accuses of flagrant collusion and implication in the massacres of the Christians. "The following pages," he says, "afford the most conclusive testimony as to the intenseness and magnitude of this enormity on the part of the Turks. . . . The massacres were supported, countenanced, and abetted by the first dignitaries in the empire. . . . It became so palpable that the Turks were doggedly bent on crushing and trampling out every remaining vestige of strength which might then exist in the Christian ranks, that the European consuls felt their position as remonstrants becoming absolutely ludicrous. All, in fact, declared that they were vainly struggling against a preconcerted plan emanating from Constantinople itself, and that the Sultan's authorities in Syria would never have acted as they were doing, unless they had been authorised to do so by secret instructions from the Porte,—a conclusion amply warranted by an intercepted letter from Najib Pasha to the seraskier, in which the latter is directed 'not to trouble himself in the least about what is going on in the Lebanon, inasmuch as everything that had taken place there had been done with the full sanction of the Porte' (p. 60). These general accusations are, it must be allowed, only too strongly substantiated by particular instances adduced of perfidious treachery on part of the Turkish Government, and of nearly all the officials who held rank in Syria. There can be no doubt that a strong jealousy had been growing and gathering strength for many years between the resident Christians and their Mahomedan rulers. The Turks perceived, as Colonel Churchill says somewhere, that of all the various races under their dominion the Christian race alone gave signs of dangerous vitality. At Damascus, at Zakhé, and at Beyrout, the enterprise of Christian traders and merchants had been rewarded by great increase of wealth. While the indolent and degraded Turk wasted his existence in useless sensuality, the Christian had withdrawn all the traffic of the East into his hands. Beyrout had become a flourishing seaport, with a large and increasing commerce. The bazaars of the Christian quarter at Damascus were the richest and most magnificent in the Sultan's dominions, not excepting the long dark corridors of Stamboul, or the Europeanized stalls of Cairo. Christian traders had become merchant princes. Their houses were filled with that gorgeous magnificence which can only be realized

through descriptions in the "Arabian Nights;" and their wives and daughters, clothed in all the splendour dictated by Eastern taste, lived a pleasant life of Oriental luxury. Wealth brought power of a certain kind, and power brought arrogance, and arrogance hatred and jealousy, on part of the Mahomedans, and a determination to inflict the cruellest chastisement upon the Christian dogs. In the right appreciation, then, of these two conditions—contemptuous overbearance on part of the wealthy Christians and rancorous blood-thirsty jealousy on part of the Turks—is contained the true secret of all those atrocious scenes that we heard so much of two years ago. Turkish influence stirred up the Druses against the Maronites, and Turkish treachery threw the disarmed and disorganized Maronites into the hands of the Druses. This point—the proximate cause in the history of that bloody calamity—Colonel Churchill brings out with great force and considerable clearness. The remoter cause he considers to be what, in somewhat incomprehensible English, he calls "that utterly absurd and fatuitous [*sic*], nay, dangerous principle of 'non-intervention,' which the British Government, in a moment of misplaced confidence, was the first to renounce in its relations with the Porte; to it may be primarily ascribed all the conspiracies, the crimes, and the horrors of which Syria has lately been the scene" (p. 8). This may be true or it may not be true. To enter into the whole question of intervention or non-intervention in foreign affairs is beyond the limits of an article, but to do Colonel Churchill justice, he follows out his principle with consistency. In direct opposition to the British policy as carried out by Lord Dufferin, he applauds, in the highest terms, the French occupation; and while he sneers, with justice, at "the accommodating flexibility of diplomatic Christianity," he considers that "the French expeditionary force exercised a most beneficial moral influence in Syria, and that it induced a general feeling of security among the Christian population, while it overawed the spirit of Mahomedan fanaticism" (p. 250). In this un-English view of the policy of foreign intervention Colonel Churchill is thoroughly consistent. He even goes so far as to advocate the necessity of the Christian powers assuming to themselves the right of naming representatives throughout the Ottoman empire, authorized to see that the promises elicited from the Government of the Porte for the protection of the Christians are fulfilled. That would be foreign intervention with a vengeance. If such a scheme must be carried out; if the faith of the Turkish Government is at a lower ebb than that of a savage state in its first dealings with civilization; if falsehood and depravity are as wide spread throughout the Sultan's dominions as Colonel Churchill would induce us to believe, the sooner the whole British policy towards Turkey undergoes a radical change the better it will be for Britain, and the sooner the Mahomedan kingdom is swept from the face of Europe the better it will be for civilization. Yet Colonel Churchill has twenty years' experience of Turkish rule on which he forms his condemnation; the facts he adduces are undoubted, and they are corroborated by the official correspondence in the Syrian Blue-book.

So far the judgment of the world will probably coincide with that of Colonel Churchill. But when he comes to discuss the massacres in themselves, his bias towards the Maronites is so prominently marked that we are compelled to criticise his position; and looking at the remarkable change in his opinions of the Druses from those expressed in his earlier volumes, we are desirous of attempting to discover the reasons for this change.

Until 1840, it appears that the Druses and the Maronites in the mountains had lived together on terms of perfect amity. "The situation and general condition of the Christians," says Colonel Churchill, "amongst the Druses was as satisfactory as could be expected in a Mahomedan State. The Druses, indeed, prized their Christian tenants more than those of their own sect, as being more industrious, active, and intelligent in agricultural matters. Their chief men of confidence were Christians" (p. 26). To such an extent was this friendly feeling carried, that the Maronites eagerly wished to join the Druses in their revolt against Ibrahim Pasha, and were only prevented from so doing by their want of organization and the final overthrow of the Druses in the Housan. This intimacy between these two sects continued in the Lebanon until the installation of Emir Beshir Kassim Shebab into the dignity of Grand Prince of the Lebanon. Hostility had long raged between the Druses and the family of the Shebabs. The three great Druse families—the Jumblatts, the Amads, and the Abou Nakads—had been utterly ruined by the old Emir Beshir, and the new appointment of Emir Beshir Kassim was viewed with a prophetic misgiving by the Druses. At or about the time of this appointment, the Maronite Patriarch sent his circular, called the "Irtam," round among the Christians resident in the Lebanon. The object of this document was to compel the inhabitants of every village to write and sign a bond, by which they engaged themselves to appoint two men, who were to act as agents of each town or village, and in whom was vested the power always hitherto employed by the Druse Sheiks alone. This was virtually the annihilation of the Druse supremacy in their own mountains. "A more unwarrantable and irritating aggression," says Colonel Churchill, "cannot be conceived." The Druses had hitherto done nothing, either by their language or their conduct, to justify a measure so wholly gratuitous and unprecedented. In the town of Deir-al-Kamar, which had for ages been an appanage of the Abou-Nakads, the Irtam was received by the Christians "with singing and firing, and every token of triumphant exultation; while the Druse Sheiks surveyed with astonishment from the windows of their palace a demonstration which pretended to announce to them that their power had passed away." A protest on the part of Naaman Bey Jumblatt against this measure was met by the Maronite Patriarch with evasive replies; while the Bishop of Beyrout boasted that ere long the Maronites would drive the Druses out of the country. At the same time the Patriarch received £20,000 from France, to enable him to enforce his Irtam by means of arms. Upon this the arrogance of the Patriarch became intolerable. Under the old Emir Beshir he had acquired an influence and ascendancy flattering to himself but fatal to the cause of civilization and religion:—

"The Emir, at the dictation of the Maronite Patriarch and his clergy, had sternly prohibited anything tending to religious toleration. The early efforts of the Protestant missionaries were promptly crushed. Any one who was known to hold any intercourse of any kind with Englishmen or Americans was immediately put under the ban of excommunication. On the arrival of the British fleet off the coast in 1840, a decree was issued through the mountains that whoever went down to look on the ships should have his eyes put out. Every means

\* The Druses and the Maronites under the Turkish Rule from 1840 to 1860. By Colonel Churchill, author of "Ten Years' Residence in Mount Lebanon, 1853." London: Bernard Quaritch, 1862.



that ecclesiastical ingenuity could invent was put into motion to prevent the ingress of English ideas, political or religious, amongst the native Christian communities."

The sudden fall of the Emir Beshir followed, and the hold that the Maronite clergy had obtained over the civil power was broken. The Irtam was the sole means by which the Patriarch trusted he might still uphold his dictatorial power. Without it pernicious Protestant doctrines would creep in which would imperil the working of that well-organized ecclesiastical system which made every Christian within his flock the vassal and the slave of the Patriarch. "Most important is it," says Colonel Churchill, "to note and weigh this remarkable feature in the approaching crisis, for here we place the finger on the source of all those accumulated evils which henceforth oppressed and desolated the Lebanon."

Immediately after this, on the 14th of September, 1841, an affray took place between the Druses and the Christians of Deir-el-Kamar, begun by some Christians of that village who had trespassed on a shooting preserve belonging to the Druse feudal chief, Nasif Bey, above Nakad. That was the spark that fired the mass. From that moment preparations for war were made on both sides. Assassinations and recriminations were matters of every day occurrence. The Maronite Patriarch declared openly that "he and his clergy would head the Maronites, march against the Druses, and exterminate them." War to the knife having been thus publicly proclaimed against the Druses, and the gauntlet openly thrown down by the Christians, the subsequent events became a matter of time, and victory a matter of organization. The time came soon. The prompt and secret management of the Druses, and the blatant cowardice of the Maronites, threw the superiority into the hands of the former. The massacres followed. They have been made known to the public in all their harrowing details with a graphic minuteness by the daily papers. They need not be reproduced here.

We have followed Colonel Churchill thus carefully in his analysis of the commencement of the massacres, partly from the interest that attaches to the general question of the origin of the war, partly to draw attention to the strange inconsistency in this volume. So far he has elaborately shown that the Druses were wronged on every side, and were actually driven in self defence to take up arms against the Christians. Henceforth he turns to rend them. He condemns them with a wholesale condemnation, and applauds the Christians with wholesale praise. His bitter hatred towards the Turks seems to have jaundiced his former favourable views towards the Druses. He now condemns both races jointly. He attacks Said Bey Jamblatt and Beshir Bey Abou Nakad with withering sarcasm, the one for his conduct at Deir-el-Kamar, the other for calling himself an English subject. But he does not make good his case against the first, and his onslaught on the second is unmasculine and trivial. He is indignant at what he considers the inadequate retribution exacted from the Druses. He professes to whitewash the Christian bishops for demanding the blood of 4,600 Druses and 360 Mahomedans and Metualis implicated in the massacres. But he implies, in no equivocal language, that both he himself and the whole Christian population were grievously disappointed at the clemency of Fuad Pasha's measures, and he concludes his volume with a passionate appeal to Christians of all denominations,—"Christian readers, Christian peoples, Christian emperors and kings,"—to exact summary vengeance on the Turks, and to verify the saying, that they who take the sword shall perish with the sword.

How Colonel Churchill has thus been led to forget all his professions of impartiality it is difficult to determine. That he has forgotten them, the most cursory perusal of this volume will demonstrate. It may be due entirely to his anti-Turkish sentiments. It may be his sympathy with the policy of France. It may be, what at first sight appears a paradox, the humanity of the Druses. However barbarously they acted towards the male population, *they never touched the women.* "Even amidst the din of the battle of Zachlé," the bloodiest of the whole bloody history, "the voice of Druse criers was distinctly heard—'Spare the women! spare the women! by orders of our chief, Hottar Amad; whoever touches a woman shall be shot.'" Had the Druses completed their atrocities, and massacred the women and children, as any other Oriental tribe certainly would have done, and as the Christians actually commenced to do when again in the ascendant under the protection of the French troops, the effect might have been somewhat different on the world. There would not have been ten thousand witnesses to record the details. No one would have lived to bring home the facts to the heart of every one, and to excite the sympathies of Europe. We should have heard, indeed, of so many killed at Zachlé, and so many at Hasbeya, and so many at Rascheya, but we should have listened with that languid incurious pity which we feel when we read of the massacres of Timour, or of Cromwell's storm of Drogheda, and not with that intense living interest which moves us while listening to the harrowing story from the lips of the actual witnesses and the actual sufferers. Colonel Churchill lived in the centre of the district into which all the houseless fugitives converged. He heard the different accounts, no doubt exaggerated. He saw with his own eyes the sufferings of the outcast women and children. It is only natural that his feelings should have overpowered his judgment. But this pardonable weakness has impaired the value of his book, and while we thank him heartily for his new volume, we cannot close it without some regret.

#### MEMOIRS OF THE DUKE OF RICHMOND.\*

THIS is, on the whole, a readable book, and yet it is not easy to explain why it is so. In a literary point of view it is exceedingly defective. It is not written in a good style, sometimes not even in correct English. It is totally without arrangement—desultory and confused. It contains much that is quite uninteresting. The whole of Chapter XII., with the history of the Corn Laws, and the duke's speeches thereupon, is now altogether out of date. Nor can we read with deep attention all the orations which were delivered when the Duke received a testimonial for his exertions about the Peninsular medals. Generally in the book, any ability is conspicuous by its absence. The political reflections are not profound: the knowledge of character is not accurate. It is odd to find the conduct of the Duke of

\* Memoir of Charles Gordon Lennox, Fifth Duke of Richmond, K.G., P.C. London: Chapman & Hall, 193, Piccadilly. 1862.

Wellington at the repeal of the Corn Laws denounced as "unjustifiable and unconstitutional;" and it is quite a new reading of character to praise George IV. for "his great kindness of heart, and his magnificent benevolence."

Yet, in spite of these defects, the Memoir of the Duke of Richmond is a pleasant reading. This must be ascribed, in great part, to the character of the Duke himself. We have seldom read the life of any man who seems to have been more deserving both of liking and of esteem. His intellectual powers must have been considerable; but readers of this sketch will be most struck by the kindness of his nature. The writer is evidently an affectionate admirer of the Duke, but he does not use the language of exaggeration when he calls him "one of England's worthies." His life deserved to be written as the life of a great noble, and a thorough English gentleman.

The Duke's political career was not distinguished. Although at one time within an ace of being Premier, the only office he ever actually held was that of Postmaster-General under the Reform Ministry. Indeed, he does not seem to have cared for office. He found his proper sphere in the unostentatious discharge of the duties of his high position, in looking after his regiment of militia, in developing agriculture, in encouraging sport, and in dispensing the princely hospitalities of Goodwood. His political opinions were, in fact, so peculiar that he could never have held office long, or co-operated cordially with any other party. His interest in agriculture made him a strong Protectionist, but he was, on the whole, a liberal politician. He opposed Catholic emancipation; he left Lord Grey's Ministry on the Irish Church question; yet he always maintained that the Roman Catholic clergy should be paid by the State. He supported the abolition of slavery, he was one of the first who drew attention to the question of prison discipline, and he held, for a country gentleman, most heterodox opinions on the Game Laws. As far back as 1837 he declared that to make undergraduates subscribe to the Thirty-nine Articles was "absurd," and advocated the admission of Dissenters into our universities. Such a man was far too good to serve in a Tory Ministry, while his unfortunate views on free trade prevented his holding office as a Whig. This memoir does not add much to our stock of political gossip, but in its desultory way it gives an epigram on O'Connell which we never met with before:—

"'Do Justice to Ireland,' bold Wellington cries,  
To his country thus constant and true:  
'Do Justice to Ireland,' O'Connell replies;  
'Arrah! then, I'll be hanged if you do!'"

In his avocations as a farmer and a breeder of Southdowns, as a soldier, and a patron of the turf, the Duke of Richmond found the happiness of his life. As a landlord, he might have been the original of Disraeli's model Duke in "Coningsby." As a soldier, he was no carpet knight. He had seen much service in the Peninsula; had volunteered for the storming-party at Ciudad Rodrigo, and had been severely wounded at Orthez. On his accession to the dukedom he left the regular army, but he was long Colonel of the Sussex Militia, and to his care and attention the singular efficiency of that regiment must be mainly ascribed. He was always an advocate for a strong militia force, and his opinions on this subject are enforced by his biographer. He seems to have thought that in the general enthusiasm for the Volunteers, the country was in danger of forgetting the far more lasting advantages of a permanent and disciplined Militia. The Duke's love for the service extended to all ranks. He was emphatically the friend of the private soldier. His endeavours—happily successful—to obtain medals for the subalterns, non-commissioned officers, and privates, who had served in the Peninsula, will not readily be forgotten by the army. Throughout the discussion on this matter, he shows a far more generous temper than the Duke of Wellington. He rises, if not into eloquence, yet into a nobility of expression, which is better than eloquence, in answer to an unbecoming attack by Lord Londonderry:—

"'I will now move for a return of those officers, and soldiers, and sailors who are to receive this medal. I do this to place myself right with regard to the orders of your lordships' House. After the attack which has been made by the noble and gallant marquis (Londonderry), I trust your lordships will permit me to answer that attack. He says that these rewards—these medals—are prostituted; that is, prostitution of these medals to the officers who are not field-officers, the sergeants, the private soldiers who fought in those numerous battles in the Peninsula—the men who led the forlorn hope at Badajoz, at Ciudad Rodrigo, and at St. Sebastian—the men who fought in those great sea battles, which we shall ever look back to with pride in the history of our country. Prostitution, forsooth! Prostitution of these medals to the soldiers who gained for the noble marquis the medals for the actions in the Peninsula, which he wears, and with which he is decorated!"

"'I say that the noble marquis, and the other officers who commanded regiments, were justly entitled to their well-earned rewards; but I claim for those who have not had the good fortune to be in the highest branch of their profession, but who dedicated their best energies and shed their best blood for their country, I claim for them this decoration. Squeezed out of the Government! It was no such thing. The war officers petitioned her Majesty. Her Majesty referred their petition to her confidential advisers. The noble marquis now complains that the medals should not be given at all, because they were not given at the proper time. Because you have been guilty of gross injustice to these veteran soldiers and sailors, is that a reason why you should not now do right? Her Majesty ordered these medals. I have ever given the greatest credit to her Majesty's Government for the advice which they gave to her Majesty. The noble marquis supposes that I shall not be popular in the army because I bring forward this question. I never did anything in this House for the purpose of making myself popular. I have always done my duty; and I will continue to do that according to my conscience. I will support the veteran officers and soldiers of the late war when I think them right, even if a thousand of your lordships were to get up and say that I was seeking a prostitution. I believe that the officers, soldiers, and sailors of the late war will be proud of these medals, for they will be a proof that they were present in those battles which shed such glory on the British arms.'"

The Duke of Richmond entered into the sports of the turf as a great noble should. He did not bet, and he always ran his horses fairly to win. We find, therefore, in this Memoir, few of "the tricks of the turf;" but one "sell" practised on Lord George Bentinck is worth quoting. Before Goodwood, Lord George thought it wise to have a trial of some horses that were entered for the stakes and the cup. One morning, therefore, very early, he met his

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trainer on the Downs. Not a soul was in sight but an old woman gathering mushrooms, from whom Lord George bought a basketful of those agreeable vegetables for five shillings. The trial came off, and a filly, then at 100 to 1, beat everything. Lord George regarded himself as the fortunate possessor of £10,000. But when he himself went to Chichester, and when his commissioner went to Tattersall's, they found the filly at 4 to 1. Great was the consternation. Who could be the traitor? Lord George had put a friend up to "the good thing;" and he was on the point of cutting this friend, and dismissing his jockey. Fortunately when he sat down to breakfast at the Swan Inn the following day—

"I have had the mushrooms stewed, my lord," said the waiter, "which your lordship's groom gave me yesterday. They are very fine, indeed, your lordship."

"And so they ought to be," his lordship exclaimed, dashing his hand on the table, and almost demolishing the breakfast service, as the truth flashed across his mind for the first time; "that horrid old woman was the culprit, and this hateful dish has cost me £8,400, independent of the five shillings I gave the old haridan, or, strictly speaking, some touter in disguise."

"Are you the nobleman," the waiter asked, "who had the trial yesterday morning?"

"I am," Lord George replied, trying to look unconcerned, but, we fear, failing in the attempt.

"It was that rascal—in disguise," the waiter continued; "he was at his dirty work again this morning, but one of the jockeys was down on him, and the latest intelligence I have is that the tout was ducked in a horsepond; and serve him right, my lord."

The present popularity of Goodwood races is mainly due to the Duke of Richmond. He spared no exertion to attract a good style of men, to have the racing of the highest class, and to keep down "nobbling" as much as possible; and the circle at Goodwood House during the race week was always distinguished. The writer of the Memoir has laboured hard to bring this brilliant society before us—somewhat in imitation of the manner in which Lord Macaulay has sketched the drawing-room of Holland House. But his success has not been in proportion to his efforts. He seems over-awed by the magnitude of his theme. The records of the guests include "nearly the entire peerage;" and it is doubtless difficult to breathe freely in altitudes so serene. But a little low life comes in as a seasonable relief. The Duke of Richmond, it appears, occupied so "exalted a position," that he could venture to associate with the "entire peerage"—even such men as Dr. Hare, who saved his life in the Peninsula, and Mr. Ten Broek, the American sporting representative. All the doings of these great ones are narrated in a style of becoming dignity. Her grace received her guests "with that sunny smile and warmth of manner peculiar to this beautiful scion of the Paget family." A practical joke—not, we think, irresistibly funny,—the point being putting a small black doll into an egg-shell,—having moved the "entire peerage" to laughter, the Duke, we are told, "refrained from joining in the mirth with a mighty effort." We confess to thinking this style of writing awkward and inflated. But we speak in ignorance; doubtless it is the fitting way to set forth themes so exalted. It is impossible fully to realize the varied characteristics of the society into which these pages introduce us without meditating deeply on the following adjectives:—

"As twelve o'clock strikes, a close carriage and four, the postillions in red and white striped jackets, the footmen in rich white and red liveries, turned up with silver and turned down with yellow, an open landau and pair, a brougham, a phaeton, a break with post-horses, are at the door, with a few ponies and horses for those who like a canter over the downs—and there might be seen a phalanx of beauty and fashion. The well-bred Chesterfield mounts his phaeton, and takes by his side the gallant James Macdonald, whose Crimean deeds have rendered him truly popular. The Duke, accompanied by his brother-in-law Anglesey, or Admiral Rous, who may sing 'all in the Downs the fleet are met,' applying Dido's nautical song to the racers on the South-downs, wend their way to the course on horseback; while the brave Duke of Cambridge, the enlightened Duke of Bedford, and the gallant Eglintoun—both now, alas! no more; the brilliant Derby, the unassuming Exeter, the well-informed Hartington, the popular Stratford, the sensible Peel, the agreeable Canterbury, the North Briton Glasgow, the lively animated George Payne, the Duke's brothers George, William, and Arthur, his Grace's sons Henry, Alexander, and George, attend to the ladies, the gallant Prince Edward of Saxe Weimar and the Princess, the Earl and Countess of Bessborough, following in a neat open carriage."

Epithets are carefully studied by our author; they are his great point. We never, we think, had the pleasure of reading a more absurd passage than the above, except, perhaps, a passage a few pages further on, describing Lord George Bentinck's emotions on meeting with a rebuff from an selector:—

"His brilliant eye sparkled with anger, his thoughtful brow was moist with perspiration, his handsome face became pallid as marble, his well-formed lips curled with scorn, his symmetrical frame shook with suppressed passion. Drawing himself up in a towering position, as if about to attack his assailant, he by a sudden effort conquered his rage, and bowing calmly but with dignity, said—

"I did not come here to be insulted."

The unassuming and useful life of the Duke of Richmond deserved to be recorded; yet we wish the task had been entrusted to other hands. The admirable gentleman who has undertaken it possesses no single qualification to write a warm sympathy with his subject, and that very sympathy often makes him ridiculous. The reader does, indeed, learn to appreciate the high qualities of the Duke's character, but he does so, not in virtue of the labours of his biographer, but rather in spite of them.

#### LES ANCIENS POETES DE LA FRANCE.\*

We fancied some twenty years ago, that we knew all about the Paladins of old, their deeds of prowess, and their wonderful adventures. We had studied the *Bibliothèque Bleue* from beginning to end, we could have gone up to an examination in Legrand d'Aussy's works, and Madame de Montolieu was the object of our fondest affections. There is a time in life when people are apt to see everything *couleur de rose*, and accordingly it is not astonishing

\* Les Anciens Poètes de la France; publiés sous les Auspices de S. Ex. le Ministre d'Etat, sous la Direction de M. Guessard. Vols. 1-6. Paris: F. Vieweg. London: Jelfs.

that we should have admired, without the slightest qualm of conscience, the powdered and periwigged *habitués* of the *salon de bœuf*, whom our forefathers accepted as Roland and Charlemagne, the simpering belles decked out with patches, rouge, and hoops, who passed current under the name of Berthe, Griseldis, or Berengaria. It was all the fault of the *philosophes* of the eighteenth century. In their disgust for the moral and political atmosphere amidst which they lived, they endeavoured to find the perfection of society and government anywhere rather than at Versailles or at Fontainebleau. Some voted for Athens, others longed after the black broth of Sparta, and Voltaire suddenly discovered that the inhabitants of the Celestial Empire were the patterns of every virtue under the face of heaven. Less ambitious, M. de Tressan, and the writers of his school, felt satisfied with models of mediæval extraction; their *Ultima Thule* was France during the reign of Charlemagne; but they created quite a sensation, and in course of time the *preux chevaliers* were even introduced by Sedaine and Grétry to the frequenters of the Opéra Comique.

If we turn now to the collection published by M. Guessard, and of which six volumes have already been issued, we find ourselves brought into contact with a totally different set of personages. The pompous style of the *Bibliothèque Bleue* has made way for long monorhymed tirades, where the same sound occurs twenty or thirty times in succession—as often, in fact, as the *trouvère's* vocabulary will supply him with words to produce the tedious effect. Then the characters! Nothing idyllic here; no false sentiment, no rant. The knights are true feudal chieftains, remorseless and cruel; the ladies are cut out of the same pattern as Criemhild or Fredegonde. The result of the whole work is not, however, disappointing for those who are fond of psychological analysis; and frequently, amid pages of tedious descriptions, we meet with some noble thought elegantly and tersely expressed. From a mere literary stand-point, it is obvious that a competent knowledge of the epic productions of the *trouvères* is quite indispensable to those who would understand the formation of the idioms of modern Europe; whilst such a study is equally imperative upon the persons anxious to know something about feudal society, and the early history of the middle ages. Such are our reasons for calling the attention of the reader on the present occasion to the elegant series entitled "Les Anciens Poètes de la France," which has been prepared by order of the French Government, and which may thus be considered, to some extent at least, as a national undertaking. If the volumes published are a fair specimen of the entire collection, we have no hesitation in saying that when finished it will be one of the most valuable monuments raised by modern *savants* to mediæval literature. The text has been in every case formed from a careful collation of the best MSS.; and in order to meet the requirements of those readers who are not familiar with the French idiom of the eleventh and twelfth centuries, the editors have prefixed to each poem a summary containing the principal events related by the *trouvère*, and furnishing a sufficient idea of the narrative. From an advertisement given at the beginning of the volumes now before us, we find that the Carolingian cycle, or the *chansons de geste*, properly so called, will occupy no less than forty volumes; and large as the number may appear to the uninitiated, yet we question whether all the *chansons de geste* that ever were composed could be included within the space assigned by the editorial committee of the "Anciens Poètes de la France."

Every event in the extraordinary reign of Charlemagne was a fruitful theme for the enthusiastic *trouvères*, and acquired, under their treatment, the proportions of an almost miraculous deed and a supernatural interposition of Providence. The skirmish of Roncesvalles became a battle on the largest scale; the campaigns against the Saxons were magnified into legendary expeditions where Heaven had as great a share as the twelve peers of the renowned Emperor; and the mysteries of necromancy gave additional blackness to the character of the Saracen champions, Termagaunt, Bourgeois, Croison, Apolin. It is curious to see the imposing figure of Charlemagne standing out from the innumerable *chansons de geste* which have been preserved to us, and being, so to say, the central point where all the narratives meet, the personage to whom all the deeds of valour accomplished by Ogier or Roland, Gerard or Doon de Mayence, Otinel or Turpin, ultimately refer. The reason of this is obvious. Between the disorderly condition of Gallo-Frankish society during the Merovingian period, and the dismemberment of the empire which took place at the accession of the Capetians, Charlemagne remained as the representative of despotic power, or of unity of government, if this expression seems more appropriate. He was the model king, and he appeared to the *trouvères* of the tenth century still greater than he really was, because they could compare him with the miserable princes who stepped into his magnificent inheritance.

The famous "Chanson de Roland"—a new edition of which was published some years ago,—may be considered as the first of all the *chansons de geste*; but in the collection now under notice are included a few literary monuments superior to that original production as works of art, although there are to be found also here other romances of very little value either as historical documents or as poetical compositions. The first volume, for instance, containing the three *gestes* entitled "Gui de Bourgogne," "Otinel," and "Floovant," thus brings together poems of unequal merit. The first is certainly the best, and if we overlook the absurdity of the subject, we can still find much to admire in it in point of vigorous writing and of interesting delineation of character. We have named just now the "Chanson de Roland." The author of "Gui de Bourgogne" has evidently endeavoured to connect his own poem with the more celebrated work of Thurold; he would have it considered as an introduction, a preface, to the *chanson*, and—to quote only one example, he tries to explain and justify, by an episode, the treacherous dealing of the base Ganelon at the battle of Roncesvalles, where Charlemagne's nephew and his followers—

"En Reinschevaus morurent à grand confusion."

But, not satisfied with his attempt to represent himself as having supplied a kind of prologue to Thurold, our *trouvère* imitates, in many instances, the style of his favourite *geste*; he borrows from it ideas and even expressions, manifesting, in this case, a considerable amount of dexterity, and catching the spirit of the model whilst he avoids the appearance, generally speaking, of servility and plagiarism.

The questions arising from the subject we are now examining are so numerous that it would be impossible to allude to them all within the com-



pass of a short notice like the present one; but we cannot omit mentioning the imitations and translations of the *chansons de geste* made by English, German, and other poets. This fact renders it sometimes extremely difficult to ascertain who is originally responsible for some of the chief amongst the old romances of chivalry, and it accounts at the same time for the conflicting theories of *savants* such as Messrs. Fauriel, Souvestre, Paris, &c. &c.; on the other hand, it often happens that the existence of a version leads us to the discovery of the primitive text, either from the indications supplied by the translator or from the character of the translation itself. The first volume of the "Anciens Poètes" furnishes us with an example of this kind, in the metrical romance entitled "Otinel," which is otherwise of little worth, especially when compared to productions such as Gerard de Roussillon, or "Le Chanson de Roland." It was known long since that there existed two different English renderings of a tale called "Sir Otuel;" and although from a mere glance at them the reader might discover that they were both taken from French sources, yet it was impossible to assert this as a positive fact until very lately, when the original *geste* was at last discovered. There is also an Icelandic translation of the "Otinel," which has not yet been published, but the existence of which appears, from its being mentioned in the catalogue of Sagas, compiled by the learned archaeologist, M. Rafn. The wonder is that a piece of platitudes such as the poem alluded to should ever have been deemed worthy of renown; but the conditions of popularity in those days were not by any means what they are now. It appears probable that the narrative of Otinel's adventures was composed originally in England; at least, the fact that one of the extant MSS. of it, preserved in the library of Sir Thomas Phillipps, at Middlehill, is in the Anglo-Norman dialect, would lead us to adopt this supposition. The other codex is in French, and is preserved amongst the treasures of the Vatican.

If the old *chansons de geste* comprised exclusively poems of an historical character, or, at any rate, offering here and there trustworthy facts, easily distinguishable under the embellishments of the *trouvère*, they might be of some direct use in solving points of mediæval chronology, or in helping us to reconstruct some character hitherto imperfectly appreciated or even absolutely misunderstood; but many of those romances are merely works of imagination, without any claim to authenticity; and some of the *dramatis personæ* which they introduce, despite their well-known names and the frequent allusions to their real exploits, are only calculated to mislead the inexperienced reader. And yet such was the total deficiency of critical science during the middle ages that exactly the same authority was given to every *chanson de geste*, whether it professed to be a rhythmical chronicle or a mere story in the true acceptance of the term; provided the magic name of Charlemagne, or of one of the Merovingian kings, was introduced, provided you could find, *raro intervallo*, an allusion to Roncesvalles, or to Guiteclin de Saissoigne (Witkind of Saxony), it was quite enough; the legend, either in its original form or under the shape of a translation, served to swell such pseudo-historical works as the "Grandes Chroniques de Saint-Denis," the metrical chronicle of Philippe Mouskes, or the famous Italian compilation known by the name of "Real di Francia." This thought is suggested to us by a perusal of the "Floovant," which is the third poem contained in the introductory volume of M. Guessard's collection, and which is borrowed from the "Gesta Dagoberti," an old monkish story of the ninth century. The incident constituting the groundwork of the narrative rests upon the well-known partiality of the old Frankish clans for long hair as a sign of manliness; but with the exception of this slight historical circumstance, all the rest is purely fiction; and yet we find the whole story of Floovant embodied in a work which passed, centuries ago, as having an authentic and trustworthy character, namely the "Gesta Dagoberti." The only difference between the Latin chronicle and the *chanson de geste* is that the monkish annalist gives us as the heroes of the episode Clotaire and Dagobert, whilst the *trouvère* substitutes for these two monarchs Clovis and Floovant, respectively. That the name of Clovis should have appeared more popular to the poet is by no means unlikely; but there is some difficulty in accounting for the designation of the other personage, unless we suppose that it has been borrowed from a Provençal or Italian work, where the name would be *Floriven* or *Fioravante*.

Every volume in the collection we are now noticing might easily lead us to a number of considerations illustrating the history of French Mediæval literature; we must, however, limit ourselves to the very cursory remarks offered above, and conclude this imperfect critique by recommending once more the "Anciens Poètes de la France" to the attention of students engaged in investigating the origins of modern poetry. Besides the merits we have already alluded to, the series possesses the very notable one of cheapness; and being undertaken at the expense of the French Government, its success has nothing whatever to do with the caprice of fashion. It is, in fact, one of those works which could not have been attempted by the most enterprising bookseller as a mere matter of speculation.

## MUSIC.

### ROYAL ITALIAN OPERA.—NATIONAL CHORAL SOCIETY.

THE question as to the propriety of allowing dramatic and operatic performances to take place during Passion Week having been satisfactorily settled, we are spared the trouble of touching any further on this delicate subject. The metropolitan theatres, with one or two exceptions, have availed themselves of their new privilege, and among others, the Royal Italian Opera House, where on Tuesday last "Il Trovatore" was performed for the first time this season, with the following cast:—Leonora, Mademoiselle Gordosa (her first appearance),—Azucena, Madame Nantier-Didié,—Manrico, Signor Tamberlik,—and Conte di Luna, Mr. Santley (his first appearance on the Italian stage in England), the minor parts being filled as in former seasons. Great interest attached to the performance of Verdi's hackneyed opera from the fact of two English singers making their *débuts* on the Italian boards, viz., Madlle. Gordosa, a former pupil of the Royal Academy of Music, and Mr. Santley, whose antecedents are well known. It has often been remarked that the company of the Royal Italian Opera consists of very heterogeneous elements, including vocalists of all countries and all schools, Italian, French, and German,—the English alone being wanting. England has now taken her place by the side of her formidable rivals, and in a

manner alike flattering to our national pride and highly creditable to the artist who has been chosen as her representative. Mr. Santley's *début* on the stage of the first lyric establishment in Europe is an event which ought not to be passed over with indifference. It is seldom, indeed, that we meet with a more striking example of what an artist can achieve who, to great natural abilities, adds the consciousness of his vocation. Barely four years have elapsed since the English barytone, then totally unknown, arrived in London, after having completed his musical studies in Milan. He made his first appearance at St. Martin's Hall, in Haydn's oratorio of the "Creation," under the direction of Mr. Hallé, and produced a highly favourable impression. The beauty of his voice, his youthfulness, his admirable style, and his artistic conception, at once attracted the attention of musical connoisseurs, who failed not to detect in the aspirant the germs of future distinction. He was soon offered other engagements, and some slight defects having been pointed out to him, he zealously sought to rid himself of the faults laid to his charge. Meanwhile, his fame began to spread. The managers of the Royal English Opera were fortunate enough to obtain his services, and although at first Mr. Santley appeared to greater advantage in his vocal than in his histrionic capacity, he yet succeeded, by assiduous study, in mastering in a short time all the difficulties attaching to this branch of art; so much so, that his later impersonations gave very general satisfaction, and left but little to be desired. Mr. Santley's position was now made, but the crowning point of his brilliant career was yet in store for him. Although his name did not appear in Mr. Gye's prospectus for the season of 1862, the public, to their great surprise, were suddenly informed that Mr. Santley would make "his first appearance on the Italian stage" as Conte di Luna, in "Il Trovatore," a part rendered famous, not so much on account of its musical worth, as from the fact of its having been filled by some of the most celebrated barytones, Signor Graziani not excepted, who in this very character appeared for the first time a favourite before an English audience, and whose assumption of it still remains a favourite cast. That Mr. Santley completely succeeded, in spite of the impression made by his renowned predecessor, is one of the strongest proofs of his distinguished talent; while the overwhelming applause with which he was greeted, testified to the high estimation in which his merits are held by the English public. Indeed, in our long experience of theatrical ovations, we do not remember ever having witnessed a more cordial reception than that which awaited our popular countryman. The audience seemed so pleased and proud to see the young English singer on the great Italian stage, that the cheering continued for some considerable time,—and, remembering that it emanated from a very fastidious and undemonstrative auditory, this cannot be too highly prized.

We shall not follow Mr. Santley in all the details of his well-known part. Suffice it to say, that he sang and acted throughout with uncommon spirit, ease, and intelligence. The celebrated air, "Il balen del suo sorriso," was of course looked forward to with the greatest anxiety, since it is in this song that the powers of a vocalist are most conspicuously displayed; while the subsequent allegro, "Ora per me fatale," offers ample scope for exhibiting the beauty and strength of his voice. "Il balen" was given with much warmth, taste, and simplicity. A little more grace and sweetness would have made it perfect. Mr. Santley having been called upon to repeat the "Romanza," was even more successful the second than the first time. A vast difference naturally exists between the English and the Italian stage. Each has its own peculiarities with respect to language, articulation, and manner. What Mr. Santley has yet to acquire, is the Italian suavity of delivery, the rounding of phrases, and a still greater refinement of expression. He should, above all, guard himself against straining his beautiful voice, which is so rich and bright, that it needs no effort to make it tell, even over so large a space as that of Covent Garden Theatre. His pronunciation of the Italian tongue is remarkably clear, every word being audible, a quality very rarely to be found in English singers. We have dwelt at some length on this part of the performance, because of its importance to musical art in general, and to the artist in particular. We now leave Mr. Santley to his triumphs, in order to devote a few words to the English "prima donna," who, we regret to state, has not shared in the success achieved by her more fortunate coadjutor.

Mademoiselle Gordosa, English by birth, though disguised under a foreign name, has, like Mr. Santley, passed some time in Italy, and we believe has had some success in the "land of song." Though her talents entitle her to respect, we do not think her destined to occupy an important position on a stage like that of the Royal Italian Opera. Madlle. Gordosa is evidently self-taught—that is to say, she has acquired habits which, with proper attention, and under careful guidance, might easily have been remedied. Her voice, though still young, is already worn, through want of management, and through having been forced beyond its limits. Her execution is very faulty, she having neglected to study the art of vocalisation in its first principles. Her manner is, moreover, undignified and brusque, while her intonation leaves much to be desired. Doubtless she possesses a certain amount of dramatic feeling, and a sense of stage propriety; but these qualifications are rendered nugatory by the defects enumerated above. Probably Madlle. Gordosa may have longed to return to "Home, sweet home," but we apprehend she will, with difficulty, find a home on the Italian stage in her own country. She is young, however, and possibly a bright career may yet be in store for her. The rest of the performance calls for little remark. Madame Nantier-Didié was, as usual, highly successful in her old part of Azucena, though we do not entirely approve of her "make-up" of the gipsy. Signor Tamberlik fully sustained his reputation as Manrico—one of his most dramatic impersonations. During the evening the famous tenor treated the audience to just one "at de poitrine," as a kind of musical "bonbon," which so delighted his numerous admirers, that a perfect storm of applause followed the unexpected "douceur." Signor Tamberlik full well knows the value of those dainty gifts, and, like a good tactician, always manages to put "the right note in the right place." He naturally counts upon the gratitude of his audience.

If, as Dr. Johnson asserts, "great works are done, not by strength, but by

perseverance, vocal institutions exist. It is a with his other programme is hundred voices concert-room the chorus h is not by any three hundred ance, and app which, althoug made up of he circumstances, season of the y should go more certain of the r

Mademoiselle Santley were th it is needless to manner. The t To hear her sing, worth a visit to tion are the chic was sadly put o to unsettle so a were "The peop know not where cial part in an Italian stage. and Mr. Swift h giving due expre have prevented M to us that the air same may be sa oratorio singing, arising either fr petence. His int regretted, inasm thetic tenor voice numerous and en

## INFLUENCE O

THE question ha spectrum analysis, glowing elementa of temperature, or circumstances und posed that each sy the incandescence nature of the coal g or the intense hea that inferences dra the temperature of involving vastly hig Later experience, h and the discovery l lowed by similar ob of temperature mig covey we announce we showed that it w sun's incandescent a by the introduction observers would fail covey has now be that not only do new spark, but that the b at the low temperat temperature, being r place of the broad b sometimes being less the flame-spectrum o intense calcium-spar any part of the band more refrangible red spark of a well-defin temperature was str observations, that in of strontium and b intense spark, and b line does not alter ei nature thus effected, at the higher temper The authors have They say if, in the pi inquiry, they may be



perseverance," then the "National Choral Society" ought to be the first of our vocal institutions. A more persevering director than Mr. G. W. Martin does not exist. It is a pity, however, that his judgment and discretion are not on a par with his other qualifications. Mr. Martin is possibly of opinion that a strong programme is as good as a strong performance, and that a chorus of "over six hundred voices," the largest ever employed in Exeter Hall, is as effective in the concert-room as in the bills. Herein he is, however, mistaken. We admit that the chorus has greatly improved since we last witnessed its performance, but it is not by any means complete in every department. Of the six hundred voices (?) three hundred might well be spared, thereby at once securing a better performance, and approximating more nearly to the small number of orchestral players, which, although including a few of our best performers, is for the most part made up of helpless amateurs. The "Messiah," it is true, succeeds under all circumstances, and is sure to "draw" at all times, especially at this particular season of the year; but if Mr. Martin has the good of his society at heart, he should go more artistically to work, give no public performances unless he were certain of the result, and promise no more than he can honestly fulfil.

Mademoiselle Florence Lancia, Madame Sainton-Dolby, Mr. Swift, and Mr. Santley were the principal singers. Of Madame Sainton-Dolby and Mr. Santley it is needless to state that they acquitted themselves of their tasks in a masterly manner. The former has long been acknowledged the "queen" of sacred song. To hear her sing "He shall feed his flock," and "He was despised," is alone worth a visit to Exeter Hall. Purity of style, deep feeling, and perfect vocalization are the chief characteristics of her talent. Once or twice the great contralto was sadly put out by the uncertainty of the accompaniments, but it needs much to unsettle so accomplished a musician. Mr. Santley's greatest achievements were "The people that walked in darkness," and "Why do the nations?" We know not where to look for a singer who, on one evening can sustain the principal part in an oratorio, and on the next enchant a critical audience on the Italian stage. In Mr. Santley we find both distinctions united. Miss Lancia and Mr. Swift have yet much to learn. Neither, as yet, possesses the means of giving due expression to the highest class of vocal music. Nervousness may have prevented Miss Lancia from developing her pleasing voice, but it appeared to us that the airs in the "Messiah" were somewhat above her strength. The same may be said of Mr. Swift. He seems but little versed in the style of oratorio singing. A certain uneasiness prevails throughout his performance, arising either from want of familiarity with the music or a feeling of incompetence. His intonation is, moreover, sadly at fault, which is all the more to be regretted, inasmuch as he is gifted with a naturally beautiful and sympathetic tenor voice. The performance appeared to give great satisfaction to a numerous and enthusiastic audience.

## CONTEMPORARY SCIENCE.

### INFLUENCE OF HIGH TEMPERATURES ON METALLIC SPECTRA.

THE question has repeatedly been asked, in reference to the new methods of spectrum analysis, whether the bright bands characteristic of the spectrum of a glowing elementary vapour, are always the same under different conditions of temperature, or whether they alter in appearance according to the varying circumstances under which they may be produced. For a long time it was supposed that each system of bright bands remained absolutely the same, whether the incandescence of the vapour was produced by the comparatively low temperature of the coal gas flame, the higher temperature of the oxy-hydrogen flame, or the intense heat of the electric discharge; and it was consequently assumed that inferences drawn from the well-known appearance of a metallic spectrum at the temperature of the coal gas flame, might be safely employed in speculations involving vastly higher temperatures than we are acquainted with on this globe. Later experience, however, showed that this opinion would have to be modified, and the discovery by Dr. Tyndall of a blue line in the spectrum of lithium, followed by similar observations by other experimentalists, proved that an increase of temperature might give rise to new lines in a metallic spectrum. This discovery we announced some weeks ago in this journal, and in commenting upon it we showed that it was highly probable that at the enormous temperature of the sun's incandescent atmosphere, known spectra might be so altered in appearance by the introduction of new lines consequent upon the increased heat, that observers would fail to recognize them. Another and even more important discovery has now been made. Professors Roscoe and Clifton have just shown that not only do new lines appear at the high temperature of the intense electric spark, but that the broad bands characteristic of the metal or metallic compound at the low temperature of the flame or weak spark *totally disappear* at the higher temperature, being replaced by bright lines. These new lines, which supply the place of the broad bands, are generally not coincident with any part of the band, sometimes being less and sometimes more refrangible. Thus the broad band in the flame-spectrum of calcium named  $Ca\beta$ , is replaced in the spectrum of the intense calcium-spark by five fine green lines, all of which are less refrangible than any part of the band  $Ca\beta$ ; whilst in place of the red or orange band  $Ca\alpha$ , three more refrangible red or orange lines are seen. The total disappearance in the spark of a well-defined yellow band seen in the calcium spectrum at the lower temperature was strikingly evident. It has also been ascertained, by repeated observations, that in like manner the broad bands produced in the flame-spectra of strontium and barium compounds, disappear entirely in the spectra of the intense spark, and that new bright non-coincident lines appear. The blue  $Sr\delta$  line does not alter either in intensity or in position with the alterations of temperature thus effected, but four new violet lines appear in the spectrum of strontium at the higher temperature.

The authors have proposed a very plausible explanation for these phenomena. They say if, in the present incomplete condition of this most interesting branch of inquiry, they may be allowed to express an opinion as to the possible cause of the

disappearance of the broad bands, and the production of the bright lines, they would suggest that at the lower temperature of the flame, or weak spark, the spectrum observed is produced by the glowing vapour of some compound, probably the oxide of the differently reducible metal; whereas, at the enormously high temperature of the intense electric spark, these compounds are split up, and thus the true spectrum of the metal is obtained. It was found that in none of the spectra of the more easily reducible alkaline metals (potassium, sodium, lithium) could any deviation or disappearance of the maxima of light be noticed on change of temperature.

The position of the newly-observed blue line of the lithium spectrum was also observed by the professors. This was supposed to be almost, if not quite, coincident with the blue line  $\delta$  of strontium, but, by employing several prisms and examining the spectrum with a magnifying power of forty, a difference in position was observed between them, the two lines being separated by a space about equal to that separating the two sodium lines—an apparent interval of two millimetres, as seen at the least distance of distinct vision. The luminous vapours of the metals under examination were obtained by placing a bead of the chloride, or other salt of the metal, on a platinum wire, between two platinum electrodes from which the spark of a powerful induction coil could be passed. The salts of the two metals being placed between the poles at the same time, both the blue lines were simultaneously seen. No other blue lines of lithium were observed, the two lines formerly noticed having been found to be due to the presence of a most minute trace of strontium floating in the atmosphere, and derived from a previous experiment. Four new blue and violet lines of strontium were, however, noticed, the above-named being two of them.

## CORRESPONDENCE.

### INTERESTING PHENOMENON IN THE SATURNIAN SYSTEM.

To the Editor of "The London Review."

SIR,—A rare and interesting phenomenon in the Saturnian system occurred on the night of the 15th; and the sky happening to be clear, an excellent observation of it was obtained with my 84-inch equatorial refractor.

The satellite of Saturn (named "Titan" by Sir John Herschel) in passing through its inferior conjunction, came precisely into contact (rather *loosely*, perhaps) with the planet's north pole at 10h. 31m. G. M. T. The state of the air was not very favourable; and consequently a higher power than 300 was of no advantage; but with this, under the best views, the satellite appeared quite round, and no decidedly black line was visible between it and the edge of the planet.

At 11h. 8m. G. M. T. the shadow of the same satellite had entered about half its own diameter on to the eastern edge of the planet, cutting off a semicircular notch of very considerable size.

At 11h. 14m. the shadow was seen as a round and perfectly black spot; and this may be taken as the instant of internal contact.

It continued to travel along the southern edge of the northern equatorial belt; encroaching on the belt by nearly one-third of its own diameter.

At 13h. 46m. the shadow was judged to be precisely in the middle of the chord it described. This was tested by the webs of the parallel-wire micrometer; the same separation of the webs measuring both the eastern and western side of the disk.

The only previous observation of this phenomenon with which I am acquainted was made by Sir W. Herschel, on the 2nd November, 1789.

I am Sir, yours, &c.,

W. R. DAWES.

Hopesfield Observatory, Haddenham, Thame,  
17th April, 1862.

## SCIENTIFIC INTELLIGENCE.

SCINTILLATION OF THE STARS.—M. Liandier, following up the experiments of Baron Portal, considers that after his own numerous observations, he can no longer doubt that the cause of this interesting phenomenon is due to the winds and atmospheric currents. After observing for a year attentively this phenomenon, he remarks how surprising it is to see how the higher regions of the air have their atmospheres so greatly agitated. During that time he states he has not seen a current keep its direction for a quarter of an hour; on the contrary, very often during that short lapse of time, the currents have successively changed, and made the round of the horizon. These great agitations presage storms when the currents change in the following manner;—from N. to W., W. to S., S. to E., E. to N., and so on, and when these changes are made very rapidly. For example, if they make the sweep of the horizon in five or six minutes with great intensity, we may be sure that the storm will soon follow. He is inclined to think that water-spouts and hail-storms owe their origin to these sudden changes of direction. Supposing that these currents descend as fast towards the earth, ending in describing circles, and that thus masses of air are brought into rapid rotatory motion, there would be refrigeration, rarefaction of the interior, and towards the centre of the masses, centrifugal force, &c., brought into play; in short, all that is required to explain the characteristics of such occurrences. M. Liandier uses the term "atmospheres," for this reason, that currents from the east, north, north-east, or opposing currents, are often produced without the barometric column being in the least affected. This causes him to think that these currents are sometimes confined to the regions above the terrestrial atmosphere. He gives the following examples of some of these sudden changes:—On the 15th March, 9 P.M., N.W., W., S.W., S.; the 16th, at 8 P.M., N. and S. together, E. and W. the same, N.W., S.E., and S. equally—intensity above the average; the 18th, at 8 P.M., W., S.W., S., S.E.—intensity above the average; the 19th, at 9 P.M., N.W. nearly, N.W., S.W., S., N., becoming more and more E.; the 20th, 8 P.M., N.W., W., S.W., S.E., all together; N. and W., S., S.E., and N.W., likewise all at once.

RUBIDIUM AND CESIUM.—Mr. E. W. Blake, of New Haven, U.S., has detected the existence of the new metals, Rubidium and Cesium, in triphyline. By analysis after the removal of the iron and phosphoric acid, and the conversion of the sulphates of the alkalis into chlorides, there remained in the form of chlorides—lithium, 40.98; potassium, 9.29; sodium, 50.04; Cesium, 0.11; Rubidium, 0.18 (= 100.60). The above approximation serves to show that triphyline, like some other minerals containing lithia, contains also small quantities of these interesting alkaline bases.



**THE GRIPHOSAURUS.**—Some time since a short notice appeared in the *Geologist* magazine of the discovery by Herman von Meyer of the impression of a feather in the lithographic slate of Solenhofen. "On a new Fossil Reptile, furnished with Feathers," is the title of an article which has since appeared in the "Sitzungsberichte der Münchner Akad. der Wiss.," by Professor Wagner, in which is described the skeleton of a reptile, from the lithographic stone of Pappenheim, in the possession of M. Harberlein, in which the extraordinary association of feathers on the anterior limbs and tails is exhibited. These feathers agree in configuration exactly with those of birds.

**PAINTING WITH ANILINE COLOURS.**—These colours, dissolved in alcohol, and thickened with varnish, are said to have been used with great success in tinting albumenised photographs, and are especially suitable for transparencies on glass.

#### LEARNED SOCIETIES AND INSTITUTIONS.

**Entomological Society, 7th April.** Frederick Smith, Esq., President, in the chair.—The objects exhibited were—1, a large collection of Lepidoptera and Coleoptera from the Cape of Good Hope; and a specimen of *Bryaxis Lefeborei*, taken in the North of England, by Mr. S. Stevens. 2, a pseudogynous specimen of *Liparis dispar*, by Mr. Newman. 3, apterous female of *Orygia Erica*, by Mr. Stainton. 4, a dimorphous form of *Xenocerus semiluctuosus*, one of the *Anthribidae* from the Malaccas, by Mr. Pascoe. 5, a monstrosity of *Chrysomela Banksii*, having the extremity of one of the hind pair of legs divided into three distinct members, by the President. 6, a valuable collection of the silk-producing species of *Bombyx*, and their cocoons, with specimens of the raw and manufactured silks, by Mr. Moore, who read a paper on the various species of silk-worms and the qualities of the different silks produced. 7, a rare Lepidopterous insect, *Lophygma exigua*, by Mr. C. Fenn. 8, specimens of *Taticampa*, supposed to be varieties of *T. munda*, by Mr. Fereday. The papers read were "On *Argynnis Cybele* and *A. Aphrodite*," "On the Restoration of Obsolete Names in Entomology," by Dr. H. Schaum; and various other papers relating to the objects exhibited.

**Astronomical Society, April 11.** The President in the chair.—Among the communications read to the society was a letter from Sir John Herschel on the subject of lost nebulae, pointing out additional instances among those observed and catalogued by Sir Wm. Herschel.

An ephemeris of Mars at its approaching opposition has been received from Lieut. Gillis, who further promises a chart of the stars which lie near its path to facilitate the observations of the planet's position with regard to them, which will be made in order to solve anew the fundamental problem of the sun's distance.

The secretary, the Rev. C. Pritchard, gave a verbal *précis* of a letter received from a Swiss astronomer relative to the solar spots combatting the generally received opinion that they are depressions in the photosphere. This point which the recent spectrum discoveries have invested with great importance, gave rise to much discussion.

A series of observations of Encke's comet made with the Liverpool equatorial was communicated by Mr. Hartnup.

Mr. Birt read a paper on a lunar crater; and an observation of the transit of Mercury as seen at Hobart Town, was communicated by Mr. Abbott.

**Royal Geographical Society, 14th April.** Lord Ashburton, president, in the chair.

The papers read were:—1. "The Fiji Islands, their Commercial Resources, &c.," by Mr. Bensusan. The author expatiated on the eligibility of the archipelago for the purpose of growing cotton. The plantations of cocoa-nut trees were also very remunerative; a plantation of them, which would cost £100, would yield £200 a year for forty years after the seventh year. Indigo, coffee, rice, &c., could all be advantageously grown.

2. "Remarks on the late Government Mission to the Fiji Islands," by Dr. Seeman. The author referred to the offer of cession made by the Fijians, and urged the necessity of the British Government accepting the offer. Alluding to the production of cotton, the author stated that, although an introduced plant, it had become in some parts perfectly wild, and had spread over the littoral parts of the islands, the quality being very superior.

**British Archaeological Association, April 9th, Annual General Meeting.** G. Vere Irving, Esq., V.P., in the chair.—The report of the auditors showed the finances of the Association to be in a favourable condition; £702. 3s. 2d., including a balance from the previous year, had been received, and £530. 2s. 6d. paid by the treasurer, leaving a balance in favour of the Association of £172. 0s. 8d.

The Annual General Meeting in future is to be held on the second Wednesday in May instead of in April. The Congress for 1862 is fixed for Leicester, and that for 1863 for Leeds. Thanks were voted to the treasurer, T. J. Pettigrew, F.R.S., F.S.A., for his care of the finances and for the ability with which he had edited the Journal and the "Collectanea Archaeologica." The officers and council for the ensuing year are:—President, Sir S. H. Northcote, Bart.; vice-presidents, Sir C. Rouse Boughton, Bart.; James Copland, M.D., F.R.S.; George Godwin, F.R.S., F.S.A.; Nathaniel Gould, F.S.A.; James Heywood, F.R.S., F.S.A.; George Vere Irving, T. J. Pettigrew, F.R.S., F.S.A.; Sir J. Gardner Wilkinson, D.C.L., F.R.S.; treasurer, T. J. Pettigrew, F.R.S., F.S.A.; secretary, J. R. Planché; rouge croix, H. Syer Cuming; foreign secretary, Thomas Wright, M.A., F.S.A., corresponding member of the Institute of France; palaeographer, Clarence Hopper; curator and librarian, George R. Wright, F.S.A.; draftsman, H. C. Pidgeon; council, George Ade; John Alger; W. H. Bayley, F.S.A.; Dr. W. Beattie; W. H. Black, F.S.A.; Henry G. Bohn; Gordon M. Hills; John Lee, LL.D., F.R.S., F.S.A.; Edward Leven, M.A., F.S.A.; W. Calder Marshall, R.A.; George Maw, F.S.A.; R. N. Phillips, F.S.A.; J. W. Previtte; Rev. James Ridgway, M.A., F.S.A.; Edward Roberts, F.S.A.; S. R. Solly, F.R.S., F.S.A.; Robert Temple, Esq.; auditors, George G. Adams; George Patrick, Esq.

**Royal Asiatic Society, 12th April.** The Right Honourable Lord Strangford, president, in the chair.—The secretary read part of a translation made by him from a Turkish treatise on Moral Philosophy, entitled "Akhtaki-'Alā'i." This work and its author are mentioned in Hajji Khalifa's *Bibliographical Encyclopædia*, the publication of which, in seven quarto volumes, by the Committee of the Oriental Translation Fund, has recently been completed. These volumes give the Arabic text of the encyclopædia and a Latin translation by G. Flügel. The article on the "Akhtaki-'Alā'i" is thus rendered:—"Opus turcicum, quod Molla. Ali Ben Amrallah, qui vulgo Ibn-elhanai appellatur et Adrianopoli anno 979 (inc. 26 Mai, 1571) obiit, Emiro Syriæ supremo Ali Pasha composuit et ex ejus nomine inscripsit. Collegit in eo, quæ in operibus Jelal-ed-dini, Naei-ed-dini et Mohsinii præcipiuntur, eaque pulchris addimentis per anni spatium auxit. . . . Ille est ex viris doctis in genere suo excellentissimus, monumentaque ejus attrahunt manu venustatis suæ frenum cordis."

The Turkish work is a text-book in the colleges (Medressa) of Constantinople, and is well worthy the attention of European scholars, being an advance on the cognate work by the philosopher and astronomer, Nâsirü'd-Din of Tûs, whose celebrity may be called European. It was written A.H. 972 (A.D. 1564-5).

**Royal Society of Literature, April 9th.** The paper was by the Rev. Mackenzie Walcott, "On a Curious Error committed by Lord Macanlay in his Account of the Death of Charles II."

Mr. Vaux read extracts from some letters by M. Demetrius Pierides, with reference to some curious inscriptions lately found in Cyprus. On one of these, a Greek inscription, is mentioned Ptolemy Eupator, a ruler scarcely noticed in history: on another, a Phœnician one, the name Jerusalem occurs, which has not been discovered elsewhere, except on one of the Phœnician inscriptions from the ruins of Carthage, in the British Museum. A letter was also read from F. Calvert, Esq., announcing his discovery of Cebrene and several other ancient sites in the Troad.

Capt. Porcher, R.N., exhibited drawings made by him when superintending the excavations at Cyrene, in 1860-61.

**Ethnological Society, 15th April.** "On Buddhism," by G. M. Tagore, Professor of Hindu Law at University College. Buddhism originated in India. Its founder—an historical personage, known as Gautama Buddha, or Sakya Maric of the tribe Sakhya, born B.C. 1624 at Kafila Vastu, on the borders of Nepal—was a descendant of the Kshetriya princes of India. Of the early progress of Buddhism, all that we can gather from history is that many centuries before the Christian era, the doctrines of Buddha were enthusiastically cultivated in Behar, where its teachers diffused themselves throughout India and the countries to the eastward. Upwards of 2,000 years ago it became the national religion of Ceylon and of the Indian Archipelago; and its tenets, with modifications of one kind or another, have been adopted throughout the vast area which extends from Siberia to Siam, and from the Bay of Bengal to the western shores of the Pacific Ocean. Its influence, at the present day, extends over 350,000,000 of people. From its commencement there was a severe and protracted struggle with the religion of the Brahmins, which resulted in the expulsion of Buddhism from its native home. The precise period of this occurrence is not known, but it probably occurred between the twelfth and fourteenth centuries of the Christian era. The generic ideas involved in the Buddhist religion are the existence of a universally diffusive spirit; the infinite perfectibility of man; and the achievement of the highest happiness by the practice of virtuous acts, the performance of which is supposed to exalt the individual into absolute supremacy over all things material and immaterial. Gautama Buddha is considered to be the highest representative of the philosophy of Bhuddism, whose purity and exaltation serve as a guide and an incentive in the spiritual struggles and aspirations of mankind. Image worship did not originally form any part of this philosophy. The doctrine of the transmigration of souls is inculcated, the results of the successive embodiments bringing the soul nearer, by a refining process, to the state of Nirvana, the condition in which it has lost all individual consciousness, and has become one with the primal essence. Many heavens, each differing in glory, are allotted to gods, demigods, and divinities, as also to men who, for their final precipitation into the ethereal spirit, who have to revisit the earth. Their hell they people with devils and demons, and there the wicked have to undergo a purgatorial imprisonment preparatory to an extended probation on earth, their torments being in proportion to their crimes and delinquencies.

Greater pre-eminence is given to its code of morality than is done by any other heathen system, ancient or modern. The Buddhists believe in a successive re-appearance of Buddhas, and that there were twenty-four previous to Gautama, whose system is to endure for 5,000 years, when it will be superseded by another. Their sacred languages are Pali and Prakrite, once the vernacular language of India. An outline of the history of the migrations of Buddhism after its expulsion from India was then given; its modifications in China, when the name of Buddha has been changed into Fo, being selected as a special illustration.

#### LEARNED SOCIETIES.

##### LIST OF MEETINGS FOR NEXT WEEK.

- MONDAY.**  
MEDICAL—32A, George-street, Hanover-square, at 8½ P.M. "On the Antiseptic Properties of Ammonia." By Dr. Richardson.
- TUESDAY.**  
MEDICAL AND CHIRURGICAL—53, Berners-street, Oxford-street, at 8½ P.M.
- WEDNESDAY.**  
SOCIETY OF ARTS—John-street, Adelphi, at 8 P.M. "On the Effect of Prizes in Improving Manufactures." By Samuel Sidney, Esq.  
MICROSCOPICAL—King's College, at 8 P.M.  
ROYAL SOCIETY OF LITERATURE—4, St. Martin's-place, at 4 P.M. Anniversary Meeting.  
BRITISH ARCHAEOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION—32, Sackville-street, at 8½ P.M. "On Roman Inscriptions found at Bath." By Rev. H. M. Scarth. "On a Shrine in the possession of the Bishop of Ely." By Syer Cuming, Esq.
- THURSDAY.**  
NUMISMATIC—13, Gate-street, Lincoln's-inn-fields, at 7 P.M.  
PHILOLOGICAL—Somerset House, 8 P.M.

## THE LONDON REVIEW, AND WEEKLY JOURNAL OF POLITICS, LITERATURE, ART, AND SOCIETY.

PRICE SIXPENCE UNSTAMPED, SEVENPENCE STAMPED.

CONTENTS OF NO. XCIV., APRIL 19, 1862:—

- The Cotton Crisis in Lancashire.  
A Belgriavian Hoax.  
The Ionian Parliament.  
Ultramontane Conservatism.  
The New Joint-Stock Banks.
- The University Boat-Race.  
Mr. Cobden on Maritime Law.  
Dresden.  
The Theatrical Fund Dinner.  
Kew Gardens.  
The French and Flemish Exhibition.  
Men of Mark—No. XXXVII. The Marquis of Lansdowne, K.G., F.R.S.
- REVIEWS:—**  
A Memoir of Sir Philip Sidney.  
Last Poems.  
The Druses and the Maronites.  
Turkish Rule, from 1840 to 1860.  
Memoirs of the Duke of Richmond.  
Les Anciens Poètes de la France.
- Music.  
Contemporary Science.  
Correspondence.  
Scientific Intelligence.  
Learned Societies and Institutions.



## NOTICE TO SUBSCRIBERS.

The LONDON REVIEW is now Published on SATURDAY Morning, in time for the early trains.

## ADVERTISEMENTS.

## CRYSTAL PALACE.

**EASTER HOLIDAYS.**  
BLONDIN will make his FIRST ASCENT this season on EASTER MONDAY, on the HIGH ROPE in the Centre Transept, when he will perform some of his most marvellous feats. He will also give his wonderful performance on the LOW TIGHT ROPE.  
The Orchestral Band of the Company and Great Organ performances at intervals.  
Boating, Archery, Rifle Shooting, Cricket, Quoits, Swings, and Roundabouts, and other outdoor sports in the grounds.  
The Park and Gardens are now in beautiful condition. Great display of Tulips, Hyacinths, and other flowers on the Terrace, and round the Crystal Fountain Basin.  
Open from 9 o'clock. Orchestral Band at 12. High Rope ascension at 2. Organ at 3. Low Rope performance at 4. Band at 5. Organ afterwards. Admission One Shilling, Children and Schools Sixpence.

## THEATRE ROYAL, HAYMARKET.

**NOTICE.**—Mr. Sothorn having appeared with the most triumphant success in the character of Lord Dundreary for 101 nights, and his reading of "Brother Sam's Letter" nightly producing an encore, he will repeat this original performance in the Comedy of OUR AMERICAN COUSIN, every evening. Engagement for the summer of the renowned Spanish Dancer, Senora Perea Nena, who, with Senor Ricardo Maragas, will appear every evening in the popular Spanish Ballet of THE STAR OF ANDALUSIA. Mr. Buckstone as Asa Trenchard (a Yankee) in OUR AMERICAN COUSIN. Also every evening, Monday, April 21, and during the week, to commence at 7, with JOHN JONES, Guy Goodluck, Mr. Compton, Eliza, Miss E. Weekes. After which, at half-past 7 precisely, OUR AMERICAN COUSIN; to be followed by the famous Spanish Ballet of THE STAR OF ANDALUSIA, in which Senora Perea Nena, with Senor Ricardo Maragas, Fanny Wright, and the Corps de Ballet will appear; concluding with MY HUSBAND'S GHOST. The Theatre during Passion Week has been thoroughly cleansed and the decorations restored. Box office open daily from 10 till 5.

**MR. & MRS. GERMAN REED,** with MR. JOHN PARRY, will appear on EASTER MONDAY, in their New Entertainment, THE FAMILY LEGEND, by Tom Taylor, Esq., with MR. JOHN PARRY'S MUSICAL NARRATIVE OF A COLLEEN BAWN.—Royal Gallery of Illustration, 14, Regent-street.—Unreserved seats, 1s. 2s.; stalls, 3s.; stall chairs, 5s., secured in advance, without fee, at the Gallery.

**ROYAL ALHAMBRA PALACE.—EASTER HOLIDAYS.**—In order to enable the masses to witness the Performances of LEOTARD and the other attractions, the Proprietor has resolved on throwing open the Palace on EASTER MONDAY and TUESDAY, for DAY PERFORMANCES, at ONE UNIFORM CHARGE OF SIXPENCE. Commence at Two o'clock.

**ROYAL ALHAMBRA PALACE.**—LEOTARD EVERY EVENING until the 30th of April. Grand Morning Performances each Wednesday and Saturday at Two, until the same date. The last performances of Leotard will positively be on Wednesday morning and Wednesday evening, the 30th of April, being the 300th and concluding representation.

**JOACHIM, HALLÉ, PIATTI, SANTLEY,** and FLORENCE LANCIA, at the MONDAY POPULAR CONCERTS, St. James's Hall, on MONDAY EVENING, APRIL 21st. The Programme will include Beethoven's Sonata Pathétique for piano forte solo, the celebrated Kreutzer Sonata for piano forte and violin, and Bach's Chaconne, for violin solo. Sofa stalls, 5s.; Balcony, 3s.; Admission, 1s. Tickets at CHAPPELL & Co.'s, and at AUSTIN'S, 28, Piccadilly.

**POLYTECHNIC.**—The following ATTRACTIVE NOVELTIES commence on Easter Monday, and it is hoped will be found worthy of the continued patronage of the public, which has, since 1838, thronged the Halls and Lecture Rooms of this Institution:—1. Engagement of George Buckland, Esq., for his new Musical Buffo Entertainment "Blue Beard," illustrated with Dissolving Views, Shadow Pantomime Effects, and concluding, 2, with an entirely new Scenic and splendid illuminated and Chromatic Fountain Spectacle.—3. New and brilliantly illustrated Lecture by Professor J. H. Pepper, on "Colour in General and Coal-Tar Colours in Particular."—4. New and magnificent Dioramic Dissolving Views of "London" in the Roman, Anglo-Saxon, Norman, Plantagenet, Tudor, Stuart, and Hanoverian Epochs, with descriptive Lecture by James D. Malcolm, Esq.—5. New Lecture by J. L. King, Esq., entitled "Curiosities of Science."—6. New and charming series of Photographic Dissolving Views (by Mr. England) of "Paris as it is."—7. New Scenic by Mr. James Matthews, entitled, "A Peep behind the Scenes, or Magic no Mystery."—8. The Merrimac and Monitor, the Warrior and La Gloire, illustrated in a splendid series of Dissolving Views.—9. First Exhibition of a pleasing Astronomical Apparatus, from Paris, called the "Uranograph."—10. Re-engagement of the celebrated Brouil Family for another series of their popular Concerts.—Open from 12 to 5 and 7 to 10. Admission to the whole, 1s.

**FRENCH GALLERY, 120, Pall Mall.** THE NINTH ANNUAL EXHIBITION OF PICTURES, the contributions of the artists of the French and Flemish Schools, is NOW OPEN. Admission, 1s.; Catalogue, 6d., which will also admit to view FRITH'S CELEBRATED PICTURE of the "DERBY DAY."

**FRITH'S CELEBRATED "DERBY DAY"** is NOW ON VIEW, at the Upper Gallery, 120, Pall Mall. Admission, 1s., which will also admit to the French Exhibition.

**ROYAL BOTANIC SOCIETY, REGENT'S PARK.** GENERAL EXHIBITIONS OF PLANTS, FLOWERS, AND FRUIT.

Wednesdays, May 28th, June 18th, and July 9th.  
AMERICAN PLANTS, Monday, June 9th.  
Tickets to be obtained at the Gardens only, by Vouchers from Fellows or Members of the Society, price, on or before Saturday, May 17th, 4s.; after that day, 5s.; or on the days of exhibition, 7s. 6d. each.  
SPRING EXHIBITIONS every Wednesday to May 7th, at Two o'clock.

INDIA OFFICE, 29th March, 1862.

## THE SECRETARY OF STATE FOR INDIA

in Council hereby GIVES NOTICE,

That the present RATE OF INTEREST (£4. 10s.) Four Pounds Ten Shillings per cent. per annum, on East-India Bonds, will CEASE and determine on the 31st day of MARCH, 1863.  
That from and after the 31st day of MARCH, 1863, such Bonds will carry Interest at the rate of (£4) Four Pounds per cent. per annum.  
That Holders of Bonds will be allowed to bring them in to be marked for continuation at the said Interest of (£4) Four Pounds per cent. per annum until the 30th day of SEPTEMBER, 1863; and that such Bonds as shall not be marked for continuation as aforesaid on or before the 30th day of SEPTEMBER, 1863, shall be liable to be paid off on the said 31st day of MARCH, 1863, on which day all Interest will cease.  
THOMAS GEORGE BARING.

TRENHAM REEKS, Registrar.

**EVENING LECTURES AT THE GOVERNMENT SCHOOL OF MINES, JERMYN-STREET.**—Dr. HOFMANN, F.R.S., will commence a Course of TEN LECTURES on the OUTLINES OF CHEMISTRY, on MONDAY, the 28th APRIL, at Eight o'clock; to be continued on each succeeding WEDNESDAY and MONDAY EVENING, at the same hour.  
Tickets for the whole Course, price 5s., may be had at the Museum of Practical Geology.

**ROYAL SOCIETY OF LITERATURE.**—The GENERAL ANNIVERSARY MEETING of the Society for the ELECTION of the President, Vice-Presidents, Council, and Officers for the ensuing year, and for other business, will be held on WEDNESDAY, APRIL 23rd, 1862, at the Society's House, 4, St. Martin's-place, Trafalgar-square, W.C. The chair will be taken at FOUR o'clock precisely.  
W. S. W. VAUX, Esq., Hon. Sec.

## ROYAL NATIONAL LIFE-BOAT INSTITUTION.

For the Preservation of Life from Shipwreck.

(Incorporated by Royal Charter.)

PATRONESS.—Her Most Gracious Majesty the QUEEN.  
PRESIDENT.—Vice-Admiral his Grace the DUKE of NORTHUMBERLAND, K.G., F.R.S.

CHAIRMAN.—THOMAS BARING, Esq., M.P., F.R.S., V.P.  
DEPUTY-CHAIRMAN.—THOS. CHAPMAN, Esq., F.R.S., V.P.

## APPEAL.

The Committee of Management have to state that, during the past two years, the Institution has incurred expenses amounting to £20,650 on various Life-boat Establishments on the Coasts of England, Scotland, and Ireland.

During the past two years the Life-boats of the National Life-boat Institution have been instrumental in rescuing the crews of the following vessels:—

Schooner Ann Mitchell, of Montrose	1	Brig New Draper, of Whitehaven	8
Schooner Jane Roper, of Ulverstone	6	Schooner William, of Liverpool	5
Brig Pallas, of Shields	3	Lugger Nimrod, of Castle-town	3
Ship Ann Mitchell, of Glasgow	9	Brig Providence, of Shields	8
Smack John Bull, of Yarmouth	5	Schooner Village Maid, of Fleetwood	4
Schooner Catherine, of Newry	4	Brig Mayflower, of Newcastle	8
Barque Niagara, of Shields	11	Barque Guyana, of Glasgow	19
A Barge, of Teignmouth	2	Brig Roman Empress, of Shields	10
Brig George and James, of London	8	Brig San Spiridione, of Galaxide	2
Brig Zephyr, of Whitby	6	Ship Danube, of Belfast	17
Coble Honour, of Cullercoats	3	Schooner Voador du Vouga, of Vienna	8
Schooner Eliza, of North Shields	7	French Brig La Jeune Marie Therese	6
Barque Oberon, of Liverpool	15	Barque Perseverance, of Scarborough	5
Brigantine Nancy, of Teignmouth	9	Schooner Elizabeth, of Bridgewater	4
Smack Wonder, of Teignmouth	2	Schooner Hortensia, of Hanover	4
Brig Scotia, of Sunderland	6	Schooner Oregon, of Stonehaven	4
Sloop Three Brothers, of Goole	5	Brig St. Michael, of Marana	8
Sloop Charlotte, of Woodbridge	5	Spanish Barque, Primera de Torreveiga (saved vessel and one of the crew)	1
Brig Ann, of Blyth	8	Schooner Hurrell, of Penzance (saved vessel and crew)	4
Sloop Hope, of Dublin	3	Brig Anne, of Plymouth (saved vessel and crew)	8
Schooner Druid, of Aberystwith	5	Schooner Betsy, of Peterhead (saved vessel and crew)	6
Barque Vermont, of Halifax, U.S.	16	Barque Frederick, of Dublin	1
Schooner William Keith, of Carnarvon	2	Schooner Fly, of Whitby (saved vessel and crew)	4
Brig Flying Fish, of Whitby	3	Smack Adventure, of Harwich	10
Smack Elizabeth Ann, of Lyme Regis	3	Pilot cutter Whim, of Lowestoft	7
Steam Dredge, of Newhaven	9	Barque Undaunted, of Aberdeen	11
Schooner Admiral Hood, of Rochester	6	Wrecked boat on Black-water bank, on the Irish Coast	1
Schooner Susan and Isabella, of Dundee	5	Schooner Skylark, of Folkestone	6
Schooner Rose, of Lynn	3	Brig Lively, of Clay, Norfolk	5
Brig Prodruma, of Stockton	11	Barque Robert Watson, of Sunderland	5
Brig Eliza, of Middlesborough	7	Schooner Auchincruive, of Grangemouth	6
Brigantine Freia, of Konigsberg	6	Schooner Friends, of Lynn	4
Brigantine Diana, of Fredrikshaven	7	Schooner Eliza Anne, of Dublin	5
Brig Gloucester, of South Shields	7	Barque Peace, of London	2
Brig Lovely Nelly, of Seaham	6	Lugger Saucy Lass, of Lowestoft	11
Brigantine Nugget, of Bideford	5	Brig Content, of Sunderland	5
Schooner Prospect, of Berwick	6	Smack Ellen Owens, of Cardigan	3
Sloop Thomas and Jane, of St. Ives	3	Galliot Epimachus, of Amsterdam	5
A Fishing-boat, of Whitburn	4		
Brig Arethusa, of Blyth	8		
Schooner Dewi Wynn, of Portmadoc	8		
Flat Cymraes, of Benumaris	2		
Schooner William, of Morecambe	5		
Smack Gipsy, of Newry	4		
Schooner Margaret Ann, of Preston	4		
		Total	498

For these and other Lifeboat services the Institution has voted £1,893 as rewards to the crews of the Lifeboats. It has

also granted rewards amounting to £515. 10s. for saving 373 shipwrecked persons by shore-boats and other means, making a total of 871 persons saved from a watery grave during the last two years.

The number of lives saved by the Lifeboats of the Society, and other means, since its formation, is upwards of 12,200; for which services 82 Gold Medals, 704 Silver Medals, and £15,350 in cash have been granted as rewards. The Institution has also expended £57,200 on Lifeboat Establishments.

The public cannot but sympathise with the vigorous efforts now being made by the Society to save the lives of Shipwrecked Crews. Their help was never more needed than at the present time, when, through the extraordinary exertions the Society has made within the past few years, it has now One Hundred and Twenty-one Life-boats under its management, for the maintenance of which, in a state of thorough efficiency, a large permanent annual income is absolutely needed, if its humane mission is to be perpetuated.

The Committee gratefully acknowledge the following contributions:—

	£.	s.	d.
Her Majesty the Queen	annual	50	0 0
Clark, Mrs.	annual	2	10 0
Clerk, Colonel, R.A.	annual	1	1 0
Cotton, Sir St. Vincent, Bart.	don.	25	0 0
Coutts and Co., Messrs., Bankers	annual	10	0 0
Digby, G. W., Esq., Sherborne Castle	annual	5	0 0
Erle, Lord Chief Justice	don.	10	10 0
Fanshawe, Vice-Admiral Sir A., K.C.B.	2nd don.	25	0 0
Harvey, Rev. G. G. and Mrs.	don.	3	0 0
Lambton, Messrs. W. H. & Co., Bankers	don.	21	0 0
Lanesborough, the Earl of	annual	5	0 0
Martin, Sir Henry, Bart.	7th don.	10	0 0
Moore, Rev. G. B.	don.	15	15 0
Robartes, T. J. Agar, Esq., M.P.	annual	5	0 0
Smith, Mrs. George, Greenwich	annual	3	0 0
Stirling, Col. Sir Anthony, K.C.B.	annual	2	0 0

Donations and Annual Subscriptions will be thankfully received by the Bankers of the Institution, Messrs. WILLIS, PERCIVAL, & CO., 76, Lombard-street; Messrs. COUTTS & CO., 59, Strand; Messrs. HERRIES, FARQUHAR, & CO., 16, St. James's-street, London; by all the Bankers in the United Kingdom; and by the Secretary, RICHARD LEWIS, Esq., at the Office of the Institution, 14, John-street, Adelphi, London, W.C.

Payments may be made by Cheques or by Post-office orders (crossed), to Messrs. WILLIS, PERCIVAL, & Co.; or to the Secretary.

## CHARING-CROSS HOSPITAL, WEST STRAND.

The Governors earnestly SOLICIT ASSISTANCE for this HOSPITAL, which is chiefly dependant on voluntary contributions and legacies. It provides accommodation for upwards of 100 in-patients constantly, and prompt aid to nearly 3,000 cases of accident and dangerous emergency annually, besides relief to an unlimited number of sick and disabled poor daily.

Subscriptions are thankfully received by the Secretary, at the Hospital; and by Messrs. Coutts, 59, Strand; Messrs. Drummond, 49, Charing-cross; Messrs. Hoare, 37, Fleet-street; and through all the principal bankers.

## SOVEREIGN LIFE ASSURANCE COMPANY, 48, St. James's-street, London, S.W.

## TRUSTEES.

The Right Hon. the Earl of Shrewsbury and Talbot.  
Sir Claude Scott, Bart.  
Henry Pownall, Esq.

## DIRECTORS.

Chairman.—The Lord Arthur Lennox.  
Deputy Chairman.—Sir James Carmichael, Bart.  
John Ashburner, Esq., M.D.  
T. M. B. Batard, Esq.  
Lieut.-Col. Bathurst.  
John Gardiner, Esq.  
J. W. Huddleston, Esq., Q.C.  
Charles Osborne, Esq.

## BANKERS.

Sir Claude Scott, Bart., & Co.

Founded in 1845.

To ample security, this Office adds the advantages of moderate rates and liberal management.

The Bonuses hitherto declared have been unusually large, and amount in some cases to a return of four-fifths of the premium paid.

No charges are made beyond the premium.

Medical Fees are paid by the Office, in connection with Policies effected with the Company.

For those who desire to provide for themselves in old age, sums may be assured payable on attaining a given age, as 50, 55, or 60, or at death, if it occur previously.

ENDOWMENTS FOR CHILDREN are made payable on attaining the ages of 14, 18, or 21, so as to meet the demands which education or settlement in life may create. By the payment of a slightly increased rate, the premiums are returned in the event of previous death.

Every information will be readily afforded on application to the Secretary or Agents.

## EXTRACT FROM DIRECTORS' REPORT, MAY, 1861.

"The Directors are enabled, in rendering their Annual Account, to announce that the year 1860 exhibited a continuance of the same healthy advance on which they last year had to congratulate the Proprietors, and so far as can be foreseen, presents the elements of future prosperity.

"Proposals for the Assurance of £254,033 were made to the Office during the past year, of which amount £167,259 were assured, producing in New Premiums, £5,619. 0s. 8d. The Income of the Office on the 31st December last had reached £40,562. 9s., being an increase over 1859 of £9,700.

"The Accounts, having reference to the last three years, show that the Cash Assets have exceeded the liabilities in a gradually increasing ratio, thus:—

In 1858 the Excess was	£3,269	7	4
1859	"	12,086	9 11
1860	"	18,557	0 6

"It will be seen that the amount added to the Funds of the Company during the past year shows a surplus of a very satisfactory character, notwithstanding the payment of £14,184. 14s. 5d. for claims consequent on the Death of Members.

"Since the Directors last had the pleasure of meeting the Proprietors, the Royal Assent has been given to a Special Act of Parliament, conferring additional powers on the Company.

"As the close of the present year will bring us to the period prescribed for the Valuation of the Business, with a view to the declaration of a Bonus, the Directors very earnestly invite the co-operation of the Proprietors, and all others connected with, or interested in the Office, to assist their efforts in making the present the most successful year of the Company's existence, in order that, individually and collectively, all interests may be advanced."

HENRY D. DAVENPORT, Secretary.



**WATERLOO LIFE ASSURANCE COMPANY.**  
**THIS COMPANY OFFERS THE SECURITY**  
 of a Capital of £400,000. The last Bonus was in 1859, the next valuation will be in 1864.  
 Claims within the days of Grace paid by this Company.  
**IMMEDIATE AND DEFERRED ANNUITIES AND ENDOWMENTS.**  
 New Premium Income for the year 1861, £9,173. 12s.  
 Policies granted against ACCIDENTS or DISEASE totally disabling the Assured, for a small extra premium.  
 Paid-up Policies granted after five Annual Payments.  
 Half Credit Premium system for five years.  
 Forms on application to the Office, 355, Strand, London.

**ACCIDENTS ARE UNAVOIDABLE!!**  
 Every one should therefore Provide against them. The RAILWAY PASSENGERS ASSURANCE COMPANY grant Policies for sums from £100 to £1,000, Assuring against Accidents of all kinds. An Annual payment of £3, secures £1,000 in case of Death by Accident, or a Weekly Allowance of £6 to the Assured while laid up by Injury.  
 Apply for Forms of Proposal, or any information, to the Provincial Agents, the Booking Clerks at the Railway Stations, or to the Head Office, 64, Cornhill, London, E.C. £102,817 have been paid by this Company as compensation for Fifty-six fatal cases, and 5,041 cases of personal injury.  
 The Sole Company privileged to issue Railway Journey Insurance Tickets, costing 1d., 2d., or 3d., at all the principal Stations.

EMPOWERED BY SPECIAL ACT OF PARLIAMENT, 1840.  
 WILLIAM J. VIAN, Secretary.  
 64, Cornhill, E.C.

**CLERICAL, MEDICAL, AND GENERAL LIFE ASSURANCE SOCIETY,**  
 13, ST. JAMES'S SQUARE, LONDON, S.W.

ESTABLISHED 1824.—Empowered by Special Act of Parliament.

BONUS MEETING, 1862.

The Report presented at a Meeting held on the 2nd January last, for the declaration of the SEVENTH BONUS, showed,  
*In Evidence of the Progress of the Society,*  
 that during the quinquennial period which terminated on the 30th June, 1861,

NEW ASSURANCES for a total sum of £1,486,370 had been effected, being an increase of £62,215 on those of the previous five years; that

THE INCOME had increased from £166,800 to £195,400 per annum; that

THE ASSURANCE FUND had risen from £1,154,276 to £1,422,191; and that

REVERSIONARY ADDITION to the Policies of £275,077 was then made, as against £232,479 at the prior division.

*In Illustration of the Results of the Division,*  
 that the Reversionary Addition above named averaged 48 per cent., or varied with the different ages from 33 to 89 per cent. on the Premiums paid in the five years; and that the

CASH BONUS averaged 28 per cent. on the like Premiums, being amongst the largest ever declared by any office.

The Report explained at length the nature of the investments, and the bases of the calculations, the results of which, as above shown, are eminently favourable.

THE FOLLOWING ARE AMONG THE DISTINCTIVE FEATURES OF THE SOCIETY:—

CREDIT SYSTEM.—On Policies for the whole of life, one-half of the Annual Premiums during the first five years may remain on credit, and may either continue as a debt on the Policy, or be paid off at any time.

POLICIES FOR TERMS OF YEARS may be effected at rates peculiarly favourable to Assurers.

INVALID LIVES may be assured at Premiums proportioned to the increased risk.

PROMPT SETTLEMENT OF CLAIMS.—Claims paid thirty days after proof of death.

THE ACCOUNTS AND BALANCE SHEETS are at all times open to the inspection of the Assured, or of persons proposing to assure.

Tables of Rates, Forms of Proposal, the Report above-mentioned, and a detailed account of the Proceedings of the Bonus Meeting, can be obtained from any of the Society's Agents, or of  
 GEORGE CUTCLIFFE, Actuary and Secretary,  
 13, St. James's-square, London, S.W.

THE NEXT DIVISION OF PROFITS will take place in January, 1867, and persons who effect New Policies before the end of June next, will be entitled, at that division, to one year's additional share of profits over later Assurers.

**STAR LIFE ASSURANCE SOCIETY.**  
 Established 1843.  
 HEAD OFFICE, 48, MOORGATE-STREET, LONDON.

Extracts from the Report for the year ending Dec. 31, 1861, and presented at the Annual Meeting, held March 3, 1862:—

During the year 1861, 1,532 Proposals were submitted to the Directors for the Assurance of £513,040; of this number, 1,115 were completed, and Policies issued for the sum of £361,960; yielding in Annual Premiums £12,868. 3s. 11d., and 201 stood over for completion at the end of the year; the remainder were either declined or withdrawn.

It will be seen that the new income is larger than in any previous year of the Society's existence.

The Statement of Accounts was read, which indicated the following gratifying results:—

The Society's Income is now £100,980. 8s. 2d.

The Accumulated Fund is £414,231. 5s. 9d.

Being increased during the year by the addition of £23,701. 2s. 9d.

The following Table, in continuation of that presented in the last Annual Report, will best illustrate the progress of the Society during the last six years:—

Year.	No. of New Policies Issued.	Sums Assured thereby.	Annual Premiums therefrom.	Total Accumulations from all sources.
			£ s. d.	£ s. d.
1856	603	204,451	6,597 18 3	202,110 7 2
1857	572	221,122	7,735 9 5	238,055 1 7
1858	658	235,350	8,582 0 9	274,797 15 4
1859	812	294,495	10,172 19 6	309,444 5 2
1860	902	336,290	11,312 15 9	360,530 3 0
1861	1,115	361,960	12,868 3 11	414,231 5 9

Applications for assurance may be addressed to any of the Agents of the Society, or to

JESSE HOBSON, Secretary.

**UNITY GENERAL LIFE ASSURANCE ASSOCIATION,** Unity-buildings, 8, Cannon-street, City.  
 Income from life premiums in 1860..... £24,309 8 9  
 Loans granted. Good bonuses. Moderate premiums.  
 CORNELIUS WALFORD, Manager.

**UNITY FIRE INSURANCE ASSOCIATION**  
 Unity-buildings, 8, Cannon-street, City.  
 Income from fire premiums in 1860..... £70,656 16 0  
 Every description of risks insured at tariff rates.  
 CORNELIUS WALFORD, Manager.

**STANDARD LIFE ASSURANCE COMPANY.**  
 Was Established in 1825, and during the last fifteen years the annual average value of New Assurances has exceeded Half a Million sterling, being the largest business transacted in that period by any Life Assurance Office.  
 From 1846 to 1851 the amount of Assurances effected was ..... £2,245,461 13 0  
 From 1851 to 1856 the amount of Assurances effected was ..... 2,541,840 5 1  
 From 1856 to 1861 the amount of Assurances effected was ..... 2,802,958 14 5  
 Total in fifteen years ..... £7,590,260 12 6

Accumulated Fund..... £1,915,192. 17s. 7d.  
 Annual Revenue..... 314,497 11 1

The Directors invite particular attention to the New Terms and Conditions of the STANDARD Policy.

**FREE ASSURANCE.**

The Assured under these Policies may proceed to and reside in any part of the world without payment of extra Premium; may serve in Militia and Volunteer Corps, in time of peace or war, within the United Kingdom; and, further, no Policy of five years' duration shall be liable to any ground of challenge whatever connected with the original documents on which the Assurance was granted.

**POLICIES OF FIVE YEARS' DURATION** effected for the whole term of life at a uniform rate of Premium, may be renewed within thirteen months of date of lapsing, on payment of a fine; during which period the risk shall be binding on the Company, in the event of death, subject to the deduction of Premiums unpaid and Fines.

**POLICIES of less than FIVE YEARS' DURATION** may be renewed within thirteen months, on very favourable terms.

**SURRENDER VALUES** granted, after payment of ONE ANNUAL PREMIUM on "With Profit" Policies, or THREE ANNUAL PREMIUMS on those "Without Profits." Loans granted on such Policies within their value.

By Order of the Directors,

WILL. THOS. THOMSON, Manager.

H. JONES WILLIAMS, Resident Secretary.

LONDON, 82, King William-street.

**THE EUROPEAN COMPANY FOR BOAT-BUILDING BY MACHINERY (Limited).**—To be incorporated under the Joint-Stock Companies Acts, and Liability Limited to amount of Subscription. Capital £500,000, in Shares of £1 each. Two Shillings and Sixpence per Share to be paid on application, and a further sum of Two Shillings and Sixpence on Allotment.

(For List of Directors, Auditors, &c., see *Times*, 10th April.)

This Company has been formed for the purpose of securing the entire series of Continental Patents granted to Mr. Nathan Thompson for his new process of Building Boats by Machinery. These Patents are eight in number, and include France, Austria, Sardinia, Spain, Belgium, Holland, Sweden, and Denmark, in addition to India.

The new system of boat-building, which cost the inventor eighteen years of labour to bring to perfection, has been pronounced by the most competent authorities in the kingdom to be one of the greatest inventions of modern times, as the opinions embodied in the detailed Prospectuses abundantly testify.

At the invitation of her Majesty's Commissioners, models of the machinery have been placed, and may be seen, in the Great Exhibition, Naval Department, Class 12.

Each applicant for shares will be required either to pay into the bankers' or forward to the Secretary of the Company 2s. 6d. per share on the number of shares applied for, and to make a further payment of 2s. 6d. per share on allotment. Should no allotment be made, the money will be returned in full. Country applicants for small numbers of shares can remit by Post-office order, payable to the Secretary.

An Illustrated Prospectus, containing full details of the Machinery invented by Mr. Nathan Thompson, with testimonials from the most competent authorities in the kingdom, with forms of application and every information, may be had free.

HENRY SEARLE, Secretary pro tem.

17, Gracechurch-street, E.C., London.

**EDUCATION.**—An English Lady, returning at Easter to spend some time in the North of Germany with a friend who receives a limited number of Boarders, would be happy to TAKE CHARGE of any YOUNG LADIES whose parents may be glad of a suitable escort for their daughters and of a recommendation to an establishment possessing peculiar advantages.

Apply, by letter, for prospectuses and further particulars, to C. H., Post-office, Sherbourne, Dorsetshire.

**COLLARD AND COLLARD'S NEW WEST-END ESTABLISHMENT, 16, GROSVENOR-STREET, BOND-STREET,** where all communications are to be addressed. PIANOFORTES of all Classes for Sale and Hire.—City Branch, 26, Cheapside, E.C.

**RIDDELL'S PATENT SLOW-COMBUSTION COTTAGE BOILER,** for Heating Conservatories, Entrance Halls, Baths, &c., by the circulation of hot water. Requires no brickwork setting, will keep in action from twelve to eighteen hours without attention, at the expense of about threepence per day; is perfectly safe, requires no additional building, and may be seen in operation daily at the

PATENTEE'S WAREHOUSE,

155, CHEAPSIDE, LONDON.

Price complete, from £3. 10s.

Illustrated Prospectus free, and Estimates prepared for erecting Hot Water Apparatus of any magnitude.

**GLENFIELD PATENT STARCH,** used in the Royal Laundry, and pronounced by Her Majesty's Chandlers, Grocers, &c. &c.  
 WOTHERSPOON & CO., Glasgow and London.

**FENDERS, STOVES, FIRE-IRONS, and CHIMNEY-PIECES.**—Buyers of the above are requested, before finally deciding, to visit WILLIAM S. BURTON'S SHOW-ROOMS. They contain such an assortment of Fenders, Stoves, Ranges, Chimney-pieces, Fire-irons, and General Ironmongery as cannot be approached elsewhere, either for variety, novelty, beauty of design, or exquisiteness of workmanship. Bright stoves, with ornate ornaments, 3l. 15s. to 33l. 10s.; Bronzed Fenders, with standards, 7s. to 5l. 12s.; Steel Fenders, 3l. 3s. to 11l.; ditto, with rich ornate ornaments, from 3l. 3s. to 18l.; Chimney-pieces, from 1l. 8s. to 100l.; Fire-irons, from 2s. 3d. the set to 4l. 4s.

The BURTON and all other PATENT STOVES, with radiating hearth plates.

**BEDSTEADS, BATHS, AND LAMPS.**—WILLIAM S. BURTON has SIX LARGE SHOW-ROOMS devoted exclusively to the SEPARATE DISPLAY of Lamps, Baths, and Metallic Bedsteads. The stock of each is at once the largest, newest, and most varied ever submitted to the public, and marked at prices proportionate with those that have tended to make his establishment the most distinguished in this country.

Bedsteads, from ..... 12s. 6d. to £20 0s. each.  
 Shower Baths, from ..... 8s. 6d. to £6 0s. each.  
 Lamps (Moderateur), from ..... 6s. 6d. to £3 10s. each.  
 (All other kinds at the same rate.)

Pure Colza Oil ..... 4s. 3d. per gallon.

**DISH COVERS AND HOT WATER DISHES** in every material, in great variety, and of the newest and most recherché patterns are on show, at WILLIAM S. BURTON'S. Tin dish covers, 7s. 6d. the set of six; block tin, 12s. 3d. to 35s. 6d. the set of six; elegant modern patterns, 39s. 9d. to 69s. the set; Britannia metal, with or without silver plated handles, £3 11s. to £6 8s. the set of five; electro-plated, £9 to £21 the set of four; block tin hot-water dishes, with wells for gravy, 12s. to 30s.; Britannia metal, 22s. to 77s.; electro-plated on nickel, full size, £9.

**WILLIAM S. BURTON'S GENERAL FURNISHING IRONMONGERY CATALOGUE** may be had gratis, and free by post. It contains upwards of 500 Illustrations of his illimitable Stock of Sterling Silver and Electro-Plate, Nickel Silver and Britannia Metal Goods, Dish Covers, Hot Water Dishes, Stoves, Fenders, Marble Chimney-pieces, Kitchen Ranges, Lamps, Gaseliers, Tea Trays, Urns, and Kettles, Clocks, Table Cutlery, Baths, Toilet Ware, Turnery, Iron & Brass Bedsteads, Bedding, Bedroom Cabinet Furniture, &c., with Lists of Prices and Plans of the Twenty large Show Rooms, at 39, Oxford-street, W.; 1, 1a, 2, 3, and 4, Newman-street; 4, 5, and 6, Perry's-place; and 1, Newman-street, London.

**FURNISH YOUR HOUSE**

WITH THE BEST ARTICLES AT

**DEANE'S**

**IRONMONGERY AND FURNISHING WAREHOUSES.**

A Price Furnishing List sent Post Free.

**DEANE & CO., LONDON BRIDGE**

ESTABLISHED A.D. 1700.

**DEANE'S TABLE CUTLERY,** celebrated for more than 150 years, remains unrivalled for quality and cheapness. The Stock is most extensive and complete, affording a choice suited to the taste and means of every purchaser. The following are some of the prices for Ivory-handled Knives—each blade being of the best steel, bearing our name, and warranted:—

	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
Table Knives per doz.	14	0	16	0	19	0	23	0	25	0
Dessert ditto ... ..	12	0	12	0	15	0	18	0	20	0
Carvers, Joint, per pair	4	6	5	6	6	6	7	6	8	6

**DISH COVERS and HOT WATER DISHES** DEANE & CO. invite particular attention to their varied and excellent Assortment of these Goods, to which they are continually adding all Modern Approved Patterns of Electro Plate, Britannia Metal, and Tin.

	£	s.	£	s.	£	s.	£	s.	£	s.
Britannia Metal, set of 5 ...	3	0	3	6	3	10	4	0	5	10
"    "    "    "    "    "    6 ...	4	5	4	13	5	0	5	7	7	10
Block Tin, "set of 6 " ...	0	18	1	10	2	0	2	2	8	7
"    "    "    "    "    "    7 ...	1	4	2	0	2	13	2	17	3	4
Electro Plate, set of 4 ...	12	8	12	12	14	0	15	0	15	0

**ELECTRO-PLATED SPOONS and FORKS.** The best manufacture, well finished, strongly plated. Every article stamped with our mark, and guaranteed.

	FIDDLE.	REED.	KING'S.	LAST.
	Second quality.	Best.	Second.	Best.
Table Spoons, per doz.	33	0	40	44
Table Forks	31	0	38	44
Dessert Forks	23	0	29	32
Dessert Spoons	24	0	30	32
Tea Spoons	14	6	18	22

DEANE & CO.'S NEW ILLUSTRATED CATALOGUE and priced FURNISHING LIST may be had on application or post free.

**DEANE & CO. (Opening to the Monument)**

**LONDON BRIDGE.**

Established A.D. 1700.

**NO MORE MESSRS. J. BARRY'S FOOD** pation, indigestion (dyspepsia), acidity, flatulency, distension, asthma, bronchitis, dyspepsia, debility, scrofula, &c., Dr. Harvey, Dr. Warrer. It saves 50 times its weight in medicine. 77, Regent-street, London. Gracechurch-street; 4, 5, 6, Strand; 5, 6, all grocers and chymists.

**COUGHS, ASTHMA, CONSUMPTION, COUGH LOZENGES,** Faculty—Testimonials from the most eminent physicians, for Cough, Chest, and Throat. Sold in 11s. each. THOMAS, 77, St. Paul's Churchyard.



**BARR & SUGDEN,**  
**SEED MERCHANTS AND FLORISTS,**  
12, KING STREET, COVENT GARDEN, W.C.

In the Press, and will be published in a few days (SENT FREE AND POST PAID, ON APPLICATION), Illustrated,  
**BARR & SUGDEN'S GUIDE TO THE FLOWER GARDEN,**  
Showing how a Rich FLORAL DISPLAY may be maintained from APRIL to NOVEMBER, with a Descriptive Priced List of all the best Flower Seeds in cultivation.

**BARR & SUGDEN'S GUIDE TO THE KITCHEN GARDEN,**  
Showing HOW, WHEN, and what things should be done to secure a regular Supply of the best Vegetables from January to December, with a Priced List of Select Vegetable Seeds.

ALL FLOWER SEEDS SENT POST PAID.

COLLECTIONS OF THE MOST BEAUTIFUL ANNUAL FLOWER SEEDS, adapted for any Style of Gardening, 2s. 6d., 3s. 6d., 5s. 6d., 7s. 6d., 10s. 6d., 15s. 6d., and 21s.

ALL VEGETABLE SEEDS amounting to 21s., sent carriage paid, to any Railway Station in the Kingdom.

COLLECTIONS OF THE BEST VEGETABLE SEEDS, suitable for Small, Medium, and Large Sized Gardens, 10s. 6d., 15s. 6d., 21s., 30s., 42s., 50s., and 63s.

**BARR & SUGDEN, SEED MERCHANTS,**  
12, KING-STREET, COVENT GARDEN, W.C.

**MR. CLAUDET'S CARTES DE VISITE.**

MR. CLAUDET, Photographer to the Queen, cautions the public that some shops are selling spurious imitations of his Carte de Visite Portraits. Although the imperfection of them is manifest, these counterfeit productions are capable of deceiving persons who do not examine the photographs attentively. To prevent this deception Mr. Claudet begs leave to observe that all the Cartes de Visite which come from his establishment are stamped with his name on the back.

107, REGENT STREET.  
THREE DOORS FROM VIGO STREET, IN THE QUADRANT.

**GUSH AND FERGUSON'S**  
CELEBRATED  
**CARTES DE VISITE, OR ALBUM PORTRAITS.**  
TWENTY-FOUR FOR ONE GUINEA.  
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